



THE
BUILDER'S GUIDE;

OR

A PRACTICAL TREATISE ON THE SEVERAL ORDERS

OF

GRECIAN AND ROMAN ARCHITECTURE,

TOGETHER WITH THE

GOTHIC STYLE OF BUILDING;

CONSTITUTING A COMPLETE EXPOSITION OF THE

MOST MODERN AND APPROVED METHODS

ADOPTED BY SKILFUL ARCHITECTS IN THE VARIOUS DEPARTMENTS OF

CARPENTRY, JOINERY, MASONRY AND SCULPTURE,

EMBRACING ALL THEIR NECESSARY DETAILS,

AND BY A PLAIN AND COMPREHENSIVE ARRANGEMENT,

PARTICULARLY ADAPTED TO THE WANTS OF THE LESS EXPERIENCED.

ILLUSTRATED AND EMBELLISHED WITH

SEVENTY FOLIO PLATES.

DRAWN ON A LARGE SCALE.

BY CHESTER HILLS,
PRACTICAL ARCHITECT.

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Fig 1

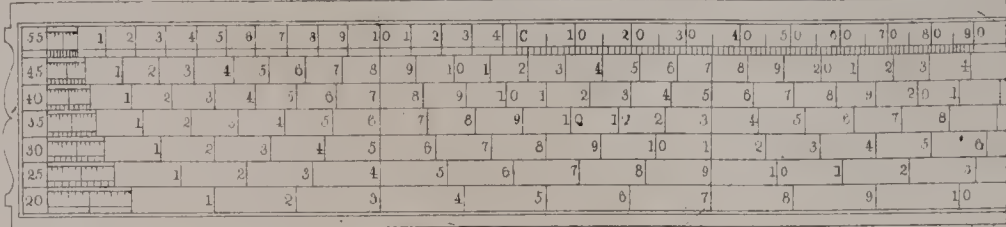


Fig 2

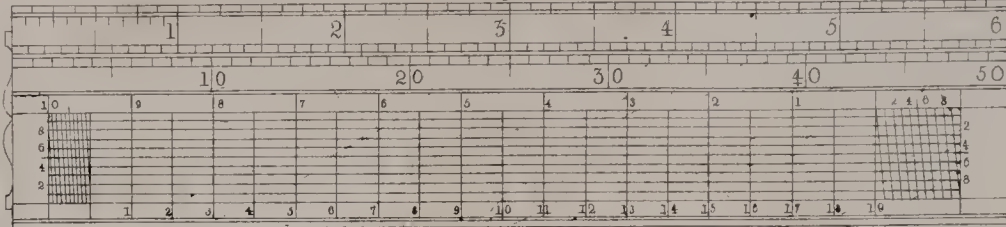


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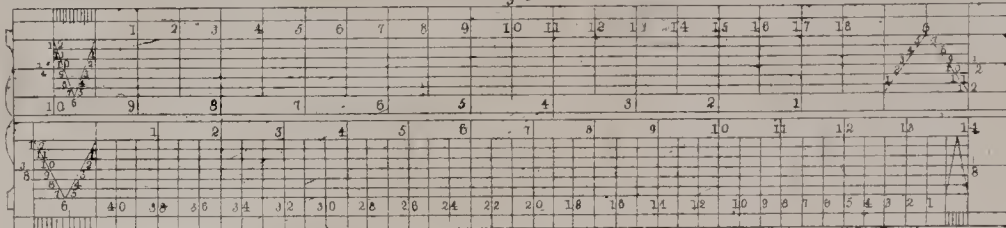


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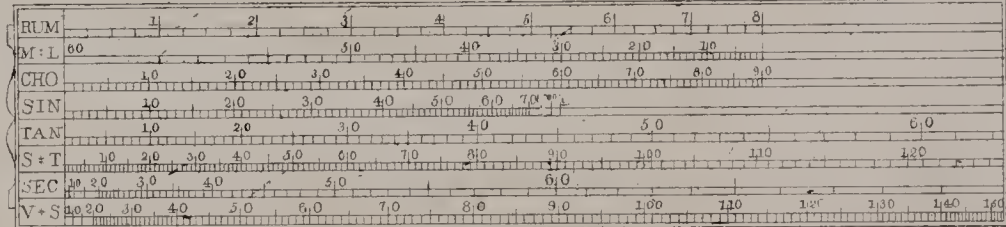


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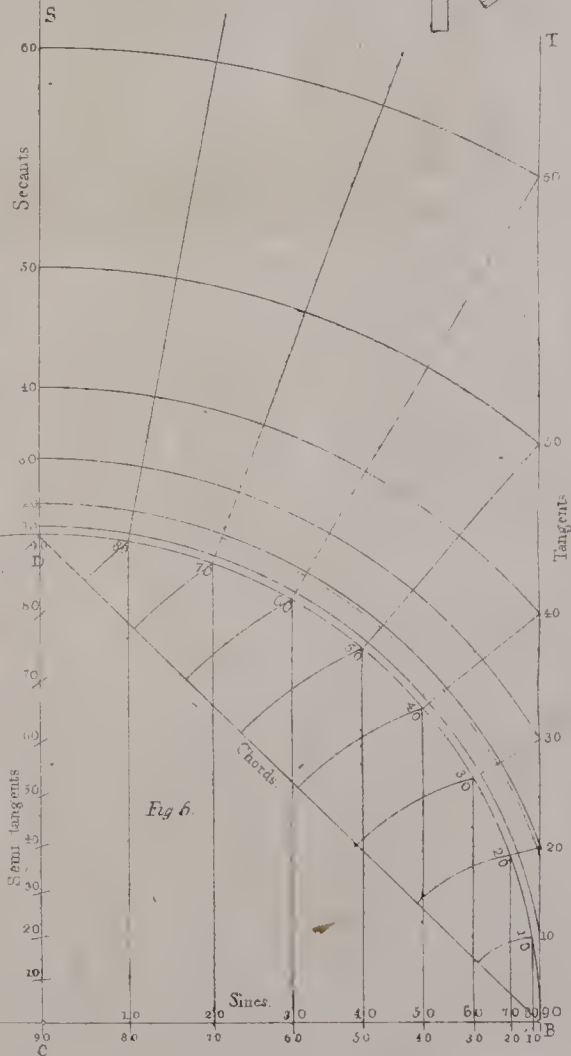
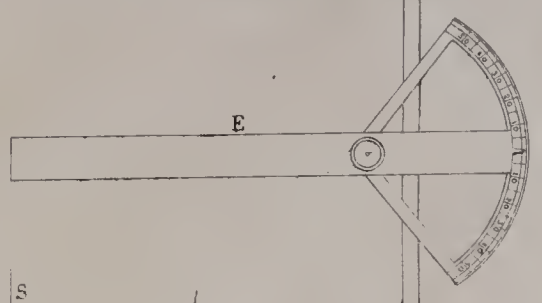
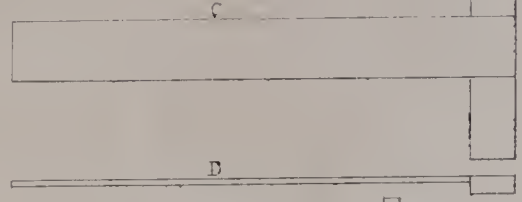
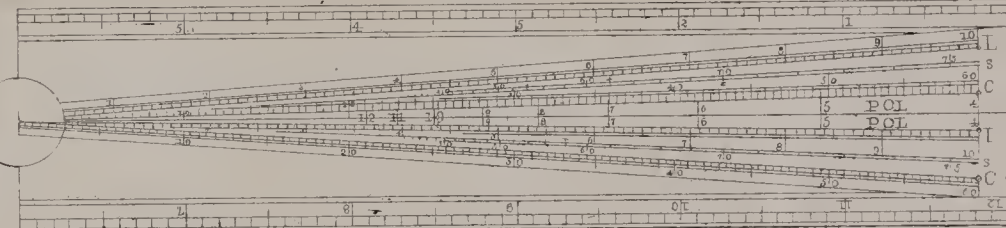


Fig 7

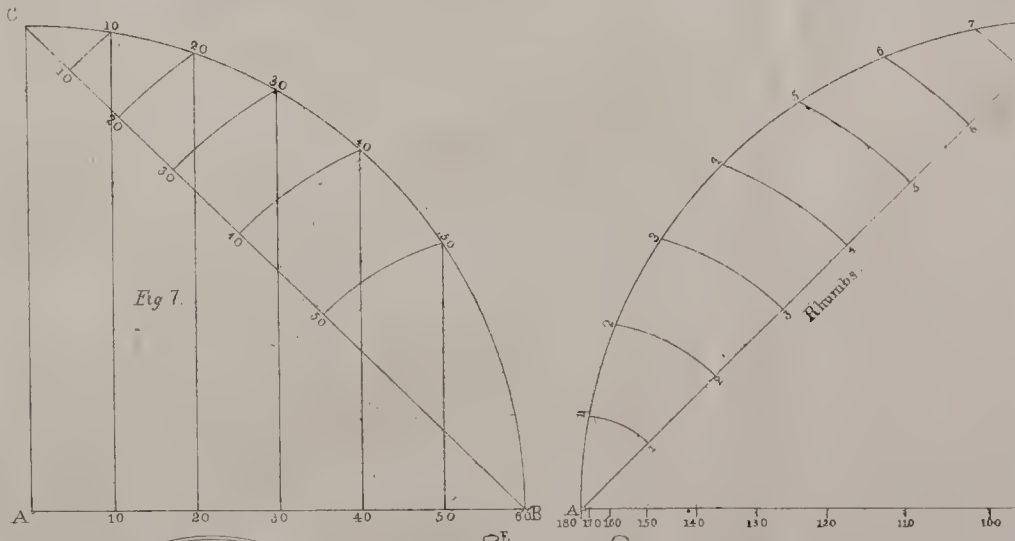


Fig 15

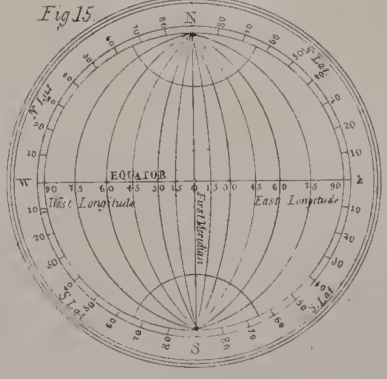


Fig 12

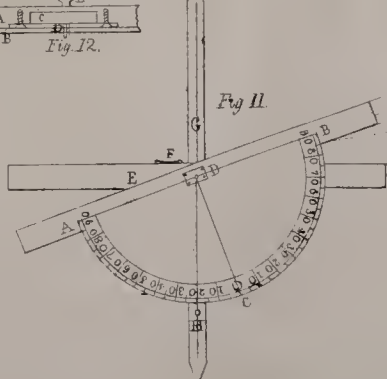


Fig 11

Fig 14

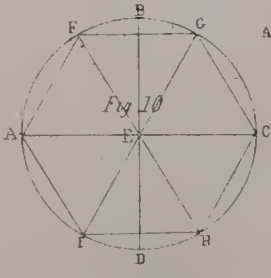


Fig 10

Fig 8

Fig 9

THE BUILDER'S GUIDE.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.

It is necessary, to the understanding of this work, that the Practical Builder should have a knowledge of the properties, relations, and positions of lines as explained in some common treatise for representing geometrical truths.

The course adopted by the Ancients is generally regarded as the most satisfactory; it not only accustoms the Architect to reason correctly, which is indispensable, but also directs him in a course distinct from analysis, which in important mathematical research renders propositions clear to his mind, without the assistance of rule and compass. It is only by being competent to demonstrate from principles previously established, and continue a chain of reasoning in such a manner as will render the conclusion from one truth, part of the data requisite for the proof of a succeeding proposition, that the Architect can become distinguished.

This science being fully explained in the writings of Archimedes and Euclid, and having served as a model for all successive works, I have thought proper to adopt in this treatise so much of those "elements" as will be required by the Architect in building.

If the builder attempts to apply the rules of Geometry to his art, without the knowledge of theory, his efforts will prove abortive; or should he at all succeed, yet his work would be void of proportion and incomplete. It is only by a competent knowledge of this science, that the Architect can accomplish his work in a

simple and elegant style; or the Artist so construct his lines as to be able to complete his design.

The completion of a design is usually left to the skill of the workman, who is supposed to be thoroughly acquainted with the execution of the task he undertakes. But if he is ignorant of the "geometrical construction" of the object to be executed, he is not only incompetent for the task he has commenced, but at every additional advance, displays to the world his inability and ignorance: such a person, so long as he remains uninformed, will be unprepared for any undertaking, and his labours in no manner useful, unless under the guidance and direction of another.

The definitions, theorems and problems which are here subjoined, are intended to instruct the uninformed, and prepare him to proceed with the remaining part of this work, wherein their application will be found absolutely necessary. The terms are as clearly stated as the nature of the present work will admit; and the theorems and problems are placed in succession, so that nothing is introduced "as taken for granted," but every thing has been previously proved and explained.

The selection, though limited, is deemed sufficient to render the Architect able to proceed through the remaining part of the treatise, with facility and advantage.

DEFINITION OF TERMS IN GEOMETRY.

1. A *Point*.—Abstractedly considered, a point is said to have position without magnitude, and is therefore represented to the eye by the smallest visible mark, or dot.

2. A *Line* is length without breadth or thickness; it is represented by the motion of a visible point.

3. A *right or strait line* is the shortest that can be drawn between two given points—as A B (fig. 1, pl. 2.)

Every line which is not strait, or composed of strait lines, is a *curve line*, thus A B (fig. 2.)

4. A *superficies or surface* is extension of length and breadth without thickness.

5. A *Plane Superficies* is a flat surface which coincides in every point, with a right line.

6. A *Plane Figure, or Diagram*, is the lineal representation of any object on a plane surface. If the lines forming the figure be straight, the figure is said to be *rectilineal*.

7. *Parallel Lines* are in every part equally distant from each other, and cannot meet how far soever, either way, they be produced, as A B and C D (fig. 3. and 4.)

8. An *Angle* is the space enclosed between two lines meeting in a point. See A B C (fig. 5.); the letter A denotes the vertex or angular point, this is a *rectilineal angle*, which is formed by two straight lines meeting in the point (A.)

9. *Converging Lines* are right lines so inclined to each other as to meet if produced to a certain point. Thus, A B and C D (fig. 6.) converge to each other, and if produced will meet in the angle O.

10. *Right and Oblique Angles*.—If one right line meets another, so as to make the angles on each side equal, each angle is called a *Right Angle*, and the line which meets the base, or lower line, is called a *perpendicular*. Thus in (fig. 7) the line C D is drawn perpendicular to A B and makes the angles on both sides of C D equal; each of these angles is called a *right angle*. In (fig. 8) the line C D does not make the angles on each side of it equal to each other; therefore C D is said to be drawn obliquely to the lines A B; while in (fig. 7.) C D is at right angles with the line A B.

11. An *Acute Angle* is less than a right angle.

12. An *Obtuse Angle* is greater than a right angle. In (fig. 8.) the line C D makes the angles on each side of it unequal; therefore, one must be greater than the other: the greater is an *obtuse*, and the lesser, an *acute angle*: for it is obvious that whatever be the position of the line C D, relative to A B, the excess of one angle more than a right angle the other must want in order to be equal to the same.

EXAMPLES.—(Fig. 9) is an *Acute Angle*; (fig. 10.) a *Right Angle*, and (fig. 11) an *Obtuse Angle*.

13. A *Plane Triangle* is a space inclosed by three right lines, as A B C, (fig. 12.)

14. A *Right-Angled Triangle* is that which has one right angle; as A B C (fig. 12.) The longest side is called the *Hypotenuse*, and the other two, *Legs*, or base and perpendicular. Thus, A C the Hypotenuse, A B the base, and B C the perpendicular.

15. An *Acute-Angled Triangle* is a triangle which has all its angles acute; as (fig. 13 and 14.)

16. An *Obtuse-Angled Triangle* is a triangle having one obtuse angle; as (fig. 15.)

17. An *Equilateral Triangle* is a triangle having all its sides equal; as (fig. 13.)

18. An *Isosceles Triangle* is a triangle having two equal sides; as (fig. 14.)

19. A *Salene Triangle* is a triangle having no two of its sides equal; as (fig. 15.)

20. A *Parallelogram* is a figure of which the opposite sides are parallels. Thus the (fig. 16, 17, 18 and 19) are parallelograms.

21. When the *parallelogram* has a right angle, it is called a *rectangle*. Thus the (figures 16 and 17) are rectangles.

22. If the sides of the *rectangle* be equal, it is called a *square*. See (fig. 16.)

23. If the two adjacent sides be unequal, the rectangle is termed an *oblong*; as (fig. 17.)

24. If only two opposite angles of a parallelogram be equal, the figure is called a *rhombus*; as (figures 18 and 19.)

25. If two adjacent sides of a rhombus be equal, the figure is called a *rhomboid*; as (fig. 18.)

26. Every figure, inclosed by four right lines, is called a *quadrangle*, or *quadrilateral*. Thus (figures 16, 17, 18, 19, 20 and 21) are quadrangles or quadrilaterals.

27. When all the sides of a quadrilateral are unequal, it is called a *trapezium*; as (fig. 20.)

28. If two sides of a trapezium be parallel, it is called a *trapezoid*; as (fig. 21.)

29. Figures having equal sides and equal angles, or equilateral and equiangular figures, formed by more than four right lines, are called *regular polygons*.

30. A regular polygon of five sides is called a *pentagon*; as (fig. 22.)

31. A regular polygon of six sides is called a *hexagon*; as (fig. 23.)

32. A regular polygon of seven sides is called a *heptagon*; as (fig. 24.)

33. A regular polygon of eight sides is called an *octagon*; as (fig. 25.) Of nine sides, an *enneagon* or *nonagon*. Of ten sides, a *decagon*. Of eleven sides, an *undecagon*. Of twelve sides, a *duodecagon*. Of fifteen sides a *quindecagon*; but polygons having more than twelve sides are commonly expressed as such, with the number of sides given.

34. A circle is a plane figure formed by one uniform curved line which is called its circumference; as (fig. 26.)

35. The centre of a circle is the point in the middle of it, as A, in (fig. 26) and the line A B drawn from the centre to the circumference, is the radius of the circle; all lines thus drawn are equal.

36. The diameter of a circle is a right line drawn through the centre and terminated by the circumference; as A B (fig. 27.)

37. A chord of a circle is a right line drawn from one point of a circle to another, and dividing it into unequal or equal parts or segments. In the latter case, the chord is also the diameter. Thus C D (fig. 28) is a chord as well as A B (fig. 27.)

38. A *Semi-circle* is one half of a circle, as divided into two equal parts by the diameter.

39. A *Segment* of a circle is that portion which is cut off by a chord. Thus, in (figures 28 and 29,) C D and F H, are segments; and (fig. 30) though a semi-circle, is still a segment, terminated by the diameter.

40. A *Sector* is the portion of a circle formed by two radii and the intercepted part of the circumference; as A B C, (fig. 31.)

41. A *Quadrant* is the fourth part, or quarter of a circle; or in other words, a sector contained by two radii, forming a right angle at the centre, and the intercepted part of the circumference; as $A B C$ (fig. 32.)

42. An *Arc* is any portion of the circumference of a circle.

43. The *Sine* of an arc is a line drawn from one end of the arc perpendicular to a diameter drawn through the other end of the same arc. Thus $K B$ (fig. 33) is the sine of the arc $A B$, $K B$ being a line drawn from one end B of that arc, perpendicular to $D A$ which is the diameter passing through the other end A of the arc.

44. The *Co-sine* of an arc is the sine of the complement of that arc, or of what that arc wants to make it a quadrant; thus $A H$ being a quadrant, the arc $B H$ is the complement of the arc $A B$; $B E$ is the sine of the arc $B H$, or the co-sine of the arc $A B$.

45. The *Versed sine* of an arc, is that part of the diameter contained between the sine and the arc; thus $K A$ is the versed sine of the arc $A B$, and $D C K$ is the versed sine of the arc $D H B$.

46. The *Tangent* of an arc is a right line drawn perpendicular to the diameter passing through one end of the arc, and terminated by a line drawn from the centre through the other end of the arc; thus $A G$ is the tangent of the arc $A B$.

47. The *Co-tangent* of an arc is the tangent of the complement of that arc to a quadrant; thus $H F$ is the tangent of the arc $H B$ or the co-tangent of the arc $A B$.

48. The *Secant* of an arc is a right line drawn from the centre through one end of the arc to meet the tangent drawn from the other end; thus $C G$ is the secant of the arc $A B$.

49. The *Co-secant* of an arc is the secant of the complement of that arc to a quadrant; thus $C F$ is the secant of the arc $B H$, or co-secant of the arc $A B$.

50. What an arc wants of being a semicircle is called the supplement of the arc; thus, the arc $D H B$ is the supplement of the arc $A B$. The sine, tangent or secant of an arc is the same as the sine, tangent, or secant of its supplement; thus the sine of eighty degrees is equal to the sine of one hundred and the sine of seventy is equal to the sine of one hundred and ten, &c.

51. *Equivalent figures* are such as have equal surfaces, without regard to their form.

52. *Identical figures* are such as would entirely coincide, if the one be applied to the other.

53. In *Equiangular figures*, the sides which contain the equal angles, and which adjoin equal angles are homologous.

54. Two figures are similar, when the angles of the one are equal to the angles of the other each to each, and the homologous sides are proportionals.

55. In two circles, similar sectors, similar arcs, or segments, are those which have equal angles at the centre. Thus if the sector $A B C$ (fig. 34) be similar to the sector $D E F$ in (fig. 35) then the angle $A B C$ will be equal to the angle $D E F$; or if the arc $A C$ be similar to the arc $D F$, then the angle at B will be equal to the angle at E . Also if the segment $G M H$ (fig. 36) be similar to the segment $K N L$ in (fig. 37) then the angle I , will be equal to the angle R .

56. The altitude of a figure is a right line drawn from the top, or vertical angle perpendicular to the base or opposite side, or to the base produced or continued. Thus, $C D$ is the altitude of the triangle $A B C$ in (fig. 38) or $C D$ is the altitude of $A B C$ (fig. 39.)

The altitude of a parallelogram is the perpendicular which measures the distance of two opposite sides, taken as bases. Thus, $E F$ (fig. 40) is the altitude of the parallelogram $D B$.

57. The area of a figure is the quantity of surface containing a certain number of units of any given scale; as of inches, feet, yards, &c.

DEFINITIONS OF THE ELLIPSE.

58. That portion of the primary line terminated at each extremity by the vertices of the curve, is called the major, or transverse axis.

59. A straight line, drawn perpendicularly to the axis major, from any point in it to meet the curve, is called an ordinate.

60. The middle of the axis major is called the centre of the figure. Thus, A (fig. 41) is the axis major, $P M$ an ordinate to it, and the point C in the middle of $A A$ is the centre of the ellipse $A M A$.

61. A straight line drawn through the centre perpendicularly to the axis major and terminated by the curve, is called the axis minor, or conjugate axis.

62. A third proportional to the axis major and minor, is called the parameter, or the latus rectum of the axis.

63. That point in the axis, cut by an ordinate, which is equal to half the parameter is called the focus. In (fig. 42) $B B$, drawn through C , in the semi-axis-minor; and if $L L$ be a third proportional to $A A$, $B B$, then $L L$ is the parameter, and the point F , where it cuts $A A$, is the focus. Or thus; if two pins are fixed at the points A and B , as in (fig. 43), a string being put about them, and the ends fastened together at C ; the point C being moved round, keeping the string stretched it will describe a curve called an ellipse, and the two points A and B , about which, the string is made to revolve, is the foci.

64. Any line drawn through the centre, and terminated at each extremity by the curve, is called a diameter.

65. A diameter which is parallel to a tangent at one extremity of another diameter, is called a conjugate diameter to that other diameter.

66. A straight line parallel to a tangent, at the extremity of any diameter, terminated at one extremity by that diameter, and the curve at the other, is called an ordinate to that diameter.

67. The portion of a diameter between the centre and an ordinate, is called the abscissa of that ordinate, or of that diameter. In (fig. 44) the straight line $A A$, drawn through the centre, C , is a diameter, and if $S T$ be a tangent at A , and the diameter $B B$ be drawn parallel to $S T$, the diameter is called the conjugate diameter of $A A$ and $P M$, parallel to $S T$ or $B B$, is an ordinate to the diameter $A A$; and the distance $C P$, on the diameter $A A$, is called the abscissa.

EXPLANATION OF TERMS AND SIGNS USED IN THIS WORK CONTINUED.

68. An *Axiom* is a self-evident proposition.

A *Theorem* is a truth, which becomes evident by means of a train of reasoning called a demonstration.

A *Problem* is a question proposed, which requires a solution.

A *Lemma* is a subsidiary truth, employed for the demonstration of a theorem, or the solution of a problem.

The common name proposition, is applied indifferently to theorems, problems, and lemmas.

A *Corollary* is an obvious consequence deduced from one or several propositions.

A *scholium* is a remark on one or several preceding propositions which tends to point out their connexion, their use, their restriction, or their extension.

An *Hypothesis* is a supposition, made either in the enunciation of a proposition, or in the course of a demonstration.

The sign $+$ is pronounced, *plus*: it indicates addition, and denotes that whatever number or quantity follows the sign, must be added to those that go before it; thus $6+5$ signifies that 5 is to be added to 6, or $A+B$ implies that the quantities represented by A and B , are to be added together.

Again, $A+B+C+D$ implies that B is to be added to A ; C to the sum of A , and B and D , to the sum of A , B , C .

The sign $-$ is pronounced minus; it indicates subtraction, and denotes that the number following it must be subtracted from those going before it; thus $7-3$ signifies that 3 must be subtracted from 7 or $m-n$ implies that the quantity represented by n , is to be subtracted from that represented by m . Suppose for instance that m is 7, and n 3; then $7-3$ will be 4. Therefore $m-n$ denotes the remainder arising by subtracting n from m .

The sign \times indicates multiplication; and shows that the numbers placed before and after it are to be multiplied; thus 5×8 signifies that 5 is to be multiplied by 8, which makes 40; and $4 \times 6 \times 2$, signifies the continued product of 4 by 6 and by 2 which makes 48; or $A \times B$ signifies that A is to be multiplied by B .

The sign \div indicates division, and signifies that the numbers that stand before it are to be divided by the number following it, as $75 \div 16$ shows that 75 is to be divided by 16; division may also be denoted by placing two points between the numbers thus $75:16$ represents 75 divided by 16, or by placing the numbers thus $75 \over 16$ which signifies 75 divided by 16, (\div) or $-$, either of these marks are used for connecting numbers together: Thus $4+5 \times 8$, or $(4+5) \times 8$, signifies that the sum of 4 and 5 are to be multiplied by 8.

The sign $=$ indicates equality, and shows that the numbers or quantities placed before it are equal to those following: thus $8 \times 10 = 80$, or 8 multiplied by 10 is equal to 80, and $6+2 \times 7 = 56$, or $A \times B = C D$.

The sign $:::$ signifies proportion, and is marked thus $6:12::10:20$, that is, as 6 is to 12, so is 10 to 20, or $A:B::C:D$, that is, as A is to B , so is C to D .

Roots are usually represented by the following characters or exponents:—

$\sqrt{3}$, or $3^{\frac{1}{2}}$, denotes the square root of the number 3.

$\sqrt[3]{5}$, or $5^{\frac{1}{3}}$, denotes the cube root of the number 5.

7^2 , denotes that the number 7 is to be squared.

8^3 , denotes that the number 8 is to be cubed.

The square root of the line $A B$ is designated by $A B^2$; its cube by $A B^3$.

A number placed before a line, or a quantity, serves as a multiplier to that line or quantity; thus $3 A B$, signifies that the line $A B$ is taken three times; $\frac{1}{2} A$ signifies the half of the angle A .

$^{\circ}$ Signifies Degrees; thus 35° represents 35 degrees.

$'$ Signifies Minutes thus; thus $26'$ or 26 minutes.

$''$ Signifies Seconds; thus $54''$ or 54 seconds.

$'''$ Signifies Thirds or sixtieth parts of seconds; thus $43'''$ or 43 thirds.

Again, $35^{\circ} 26' 54''' 43'''$ implies 35 degrees, 26 minutes, 54 seconds, and 43 thirds.

S Signifies Sine.— $Sec.$ signifies Secant.— $Tan.$ signifies Tangent.

$Co-sine$, $Co-tangent$ or $Co-secant$ of an arc signifies the sine, tangent or secant of the complement of that arc respectively.

\angle Signifies Angle with an s at top angles L^s or with a d angled L^d .

\triangle Signifies Triangle. \square Signifies a Square.

AXIOMS.

69. 1. Things that are equal to the same thing, or to equal things, are equal to one another. 2. If equal things be added to equals, the sums are equal. 3. If equal things be taken from equals, the remainders will be equal. 4. If equal things be added to unequals, the sums are unequal. 5. The halves of equal things are equal, and double the parts of equal things are equal. 6. Magnitudes that mutually agree, or fill equal spaces are equal to one another. 7. The whole is greater than a part, and equal to the sum of all its parts. 8. Only one right line can be drawn from one point to another. 9. Two right lines can not be drawn through the same point parallel to another right line, without coinciding with each other. 10. All right angles are equal to each other. 11. Equal circles have equal semi-diameters.

POSTULATES OR DEMANDS.

70. A *Postulate* signifies something which may be assumed as granted.—
1. That a right line may be drawn from any one point to any other point.
2. That a right line may be produced or continued at pleasure in a right line.
3. That a circle may be described from any centre with any radius.

THEOREMS.

THEOREM I.

71. *All right angles are equal to each other.* Let the straight line CD (fig. 45, and 46, pl. 2) be perpendicular to AB , and GH to EF ; the angles ACD and EGH will be equal to each other.

Demonstration.—Take the four distances CA, CB, GE, GF , all equal; the distance AB will be equal to the distance EF , and the line EF being placed on AB , so that the point E falls on A , the point F will fall on B . Those two lines will thus coincide entirely; for otherwise there would be two straight lines extending from A to B , which (Def. 69. 8) is impossible: and hence G the middle point of EF , will fall on C , the middle point of AB . The side GE being thus applied to CA , the side GH must fall on CD . For suppose, if possible, that it falls on a line CK , different from CD : then since by hypothesis (10) the angle $EGH = HGF$, ACK would in that case be equal to KCB . But the angle ACK is greater than ACD ; and KCB is smaller than BCD , but by hypothesis $ACD = BCD$; hence ACK is greater than KCB . Therefore the line GH cannot fall on a line CK different from CD ; therefore it falls on CD , and the angle EGH on ACD ; therefore all right angles are equal to each other (69. 6.)

THEOREM II.

72. Every straight line, which meets another, makes with it two adjacent angles the sum of which is equal to two right angles. Let AB and CD (fig. 47.) be the straight lines meeting each other at C , then will the angle ACD + the angle DCB be equal to two right angles.

At the point C , erect CE perpendicular to AB . The angle ACD , is the sum of the angles ACE, ECD ; therefore $ACD + BCD$ is the sum of the three angles ACE, ECD, BCD ; but the first of those three angles, is a right angle and the other two together make up the right angle BCE hence the sum of the two angles ACD and BCD is equal to two right angles.

73. Cor. 1. If one of the angles ACD, BCD in (fig. 48) is right the other must be right also.

74. Cor. 2. If the line DE is perpendicular to AB , reciprocally AB will be perpendicular to DE .

For since DE is perpendicular to AB , the angle ACD must be equal to its adjacent one DCB and both of them must be right. But since ACD is a right angle, its adjacent one ACE must also be right; hence the angle $ACE = ACD$; therefore AB is perpendicular to DE .

75. Cor. 3. (fig. 49.) The sum of all the successive angles BAC, CAD, DAE, EAF , formed on the same side of a straight line BF , is equal to two right angles; because their sum is equal to that of the two adjacent angles, BAC, CAF .

THEOREM III.

76. Whenever two straight lines intersect each other, the opposite or vertical angles which they form are equal.

Let AB and DE (fig. 50) be the given straight lines intersecting each other at C ; then is the angle $ECB = ACD$, and the angle $ACE = DCB$.

For since DE is a straight line the sum of the angles ACD, ACE , is equal to two right angles; and since AB is a straight line, the sum of the angles ACE, BCE , is also equal to two right angles; hence the sum $ACD + ACE$ is equal to the sum $ACE + BCE$. Take away from both, the same angle ACE ; there remains the angle ACD , is equal to its opposite or vertical angle BCE . It may be shown in the same manner, that the angle ACE is equal to its opposite angle BCD .

77. Scholium. The four angles formed about a point by two straight lines which intersect each other are together equal to four right angles; for the sum of the two angles ACE, BCE , is equal to two right angles; and the other two ACD, BCD , have the same value; therefore the sum of the four, is four right angles.

In general if any number of straight lines, CA, CB, CD , &c. as in (fig. 51.) meet in a point C , the sum of all the successive angles ACB, BCD, DCE, ECF, FCA , will be equal to four right angles; for if four right angles were formed about the point C by means of two lines perpendicular to each other the same space would be occupied either by the four right angles, or by the successive angles ACB, BCD, DCE, ECF, FCA .

THEOREM IV.

78. Two triangles are equal when an angle and the two sides which contain it, in the one are respectively equal to an angle and the two sides which contain it, in the other.

Let the angle A (figs. 52 and 53) be equal to D , the side AC equal to the side DF , the side AB equal to DE ; then will the triangle ABC be equal to DEF . For these triangles may be applied to each other, so that they shall perfectly coincide. If the side DE be placed on its equal AB the point D will fall on A , and the point E on B ; and since the angle D is equal to the angle A , when the side DE is placed on AB , the side DF will take the direction AC . Besides, DF is equal to AC ; therefore the point F will fall on C , and the third side EF will exactly cover the third side BC ; therefore (69. 6.) the triangle DEF is equal to the triangle ABC .

79. Cor. When in two triangles, these three things are equal, namely, the angle $A = D$, the side $AB = DE$, and the side $AC = DF$, the other three are equal also, namely, the angle $B = E$ the angle $C = F$ and the side $BC = EF$.

THEOREM V.

80. In an isosceles triangle the angles opposite to the equal sides are equal. Let the side AB (fig. 54) be equal to AC , the angle C will be equal to B . Join A the vertex, and D the middle point of the base BC . The triangles ADB, ADC , have all the sides of the one respectively equal to those of the other, AD being common, $AB = AC$ (hyp.) and $BD = DC$ by construction; therefore by the last proposition, the angle B is equal to the angle C .

81. Cor. An equilateral triangle is likewise equiangular, that is to say has all its angles equal.

82. Scholium. The equality of the triangles ADB, ADC , proves also that the angle BAD is equal to DAC , and BDA to ADC ; hence the latter two are right angles; hence the line drawn from the vertex, of an isosceles triangle to the middle point of its base is perpendicular to that base and divides the angle at the vertex into two equal parts.

In a triangle which is not isosceles, any side may be assumed indifferently as the base; and the vertex is, in that case, the vertex of the opposite angle. In an isosceles triangle, however, that side is specially assumed as the base which is not equal to either of the other two.

THEOREM VI.

83. From a given point without a straight line, only one perpendicular can be drawn to that line.

Let A (fig. 55) be the point, and DE the given line.

Let us suppose we can draw two, AB and AC . Produce one of them AB , till BF is equal to AB and joins FC .

The triangle CBF is equal to ABC ; for the angles CBF and CBA are right, the side CB is common and the side $BF = AB$; therefore (78) those triangles are equal and the angle $BCF = BCA$. The angle BCA is right by hypothesis; therefore BCF must be right also. But if the adjacent angles BCA, BCF , are together equal to two right angles, the line ACF must be straight; from whence it follows, that between the same two points A and F , two straight lines can be drawn: which is impossible; hence it is equally impossible that two perpendiculars can be drawn from the same point to the same straight line.

84. Scholium. At a given point C in the line AB , it is equally impossible to erect two perpendiculars to that line for (see the diagram of Art. 72) if CD and CE were those two perpendiculars the angle BCD would be right as well as BCE , and the part would thus be equal to the whole.

THEOREM VII.

85. Two right angled triangles are equal when the hypotenuse and a side of the one are respectively equal to the hypotenuse and a side of the other.

Suppose the hypotenuse $AC = DF$, (figs. 56 and 57) and the side $AB = DE$; the right angled triangle ABC will be equal to the right angled triangle DEF .

Their equality would be manifest, if the third sides BC and EF were equal. If possible suppose that those sides are not equal, and that BC is greater. Take $BG = EF$; and join AG . The triangle ABG is equal to DEF ; for the right angles B and E are equal, the side $AB = DE$, and $BG = EF$; hence these triangles are equal (78) and consequently $AG = DF$. Now (Hyp.) we have $DF = AC$; and therefore $AG = AC$. But the oblique line AG cannot be equal to AC , which lies nearer the perpendicular AB ; therefore it is impossible that BC can differ from EF ; therefore the triangles ABC and DEF are equal.

THEOREM VIII.

86. If a straight line falling upon two other straight lines makes the alternate angles equal to one another, these two straight lines are parallel.

Let the straight line EF , (fig. 58) which falls upon the two straight lines AB, CD make the alternate angles AEF, EFD equal to one another; AB is parallel to CD .

For if it be not parallel, AB and CD being produced shall meet either towards B, D , or towards A, C ; let them be produced and meet towards B, D , in the point G ; therefore GEF is a triangle, and its exterior angle AEF is greater than the interior and opposite angle EGF ; but it is also equal to it which is impossible: Therefore, AB and CD being produced do not meet towards B, D . In like manner it may be demonstrated that they do not meet towards A, C ; but those straight lines which meet neither way, though produced ever so far are parallel (7) to one another, AB therefore is parallel to CD .

THEOREM IX.

87. If a straight line falling upon two other straight lines makes the exterior angle equal to the interior and opposite upon the same side of the line; or makes the interior angles upon the same side together equal to two right angles; the two straight lines are parallel to one another. Let the straight line EF (fig. 59) which falls upon the two straight lines AB, CD make the exterior angle EGB equal to GHD , the interior and opposite angle upon the same side; or let it make the interior angles on the same side BGH, GHD together equal to two right angles; AB is parallel to CD .

Because the angle EGB is equal to the angle GHD , and also to the angle AGH , the angle AGH is equal to the angle GHD ; and they are the alternate angles; therefore AB is parallel (86) to CD . Again because the angles BGH, GHD are equal (hy. hyp.) to right angles, and AGH, BGH are also equal (71. 1.) to two right angles, the angles AGH, BGH are equal to the angles BGH, GHD : Take away the common angle BGH ; therefore the remaining angle AGH is equal to the remaining angle GHD ; and they are alternate angles; therefore AB is parallel to CD .

THEOREM X.

88. To draw a straight line through a given point parallel to a given straight line.

Let A (fig. 60) be the given point and B C the given straight line it is required to draw a straight line through the point A parallel to the straight line B C.

In B C take any point D, and join A D; and at the point A in the straight line A D make the angle D A E equal to the angle A D C: and produce the straight line E A to F.

Because the straight line A D which meets the two straight lines B C, E F, makes the alternate angles E A D, A D C equal to one another, E F is parallel (87) to B C, therefore the straight line E A F is drawn through the given point A parallel to the given straight line B C, which was to be done.

THEOREM XI.

89. If a side of any triangle be produced, the exterior angle is equal to the two interior and opposite angles; and the three interior angles of every triangle are equal to two right angles.

Let A B C (fig. 61) be a triangle and let one of its sides B C be produced to D; the exterior angle A C D is equal to the two interior and opposite angles C A B, A B C; and the three interior angles of the triangle, viz. A B C, B C A, C A B, are together equal to two right angles.

Through the point C draw C E parallel (87) to the straight line A B; and because A B is parallel to C E and A C meets them, the alternate angles B A C, A C E are equal. Again, because A B is parallel to C E, and B D falls upon them the exterior angle E C D is equal to the interior and opposite angle A B C, but the angle A C E was shown to be equal to the angle B A C; therefore the whole exterior angle A C D is equal to the two interior and opposite angles C A B, A B C, to these angles add the angle A C B, and the angles A C D, A C B are equal to the three angles C B A, B A C, A C B, but the angles A C D, A C B, are equal (71) to two right angles; therefore also the angles C B A, B A C, A C B are equal to two right angles.

90. Cor. 1. All the interior angles of any rectilineal figure are equal to twice as many right angles as the figure has sides, wanting four right angles.

For any rectilineal figure A B C D E (fig. 62) can be divided into as many triangles as the figure has sides, by drawing straight lines from a point F within the figure to each of its angles. And by the preceding proposition, all the angles of these triangles, are equal to twice as many right angles as there are triangles, that is as there are sides of the figure; and the same angles are equal to the angles of the figure, together with the angles at the point F, which is the common vertex of the triangles; that is, together with four right angles. Therefore twice as many right angles as the figure has sides, are equal to all the angles of the figure, together with four right angles that is the angles of the figure are equal to twice as many right angles as the figure has sides, wanting four.

91. Cor. 2. All the exterior angles of any rectilineal figure are together equal to four right angles.

Because every interior angle A B C (fig. 63,) with its adjacent exterior A B D is equal (71) to two right angles; therefore all the interior, together with all the exterior angles of the figure, are equal to twice as many right angles as there are sides of the figure; that is by the foregoing corollary, they are equal to all the interior angles of the figure, together with four right angles; therefore all the exterior angles are equal to four right angles.

THEOREM XII.

92. The opposite sides and angles of a parallelogram are equal to one another and the diameter bisects it, that is divides it into two equal parts.

NOTE.—A parallelogram is a four sided figure; (20) of which the opposite sides are parallel; and the diameter is the straight line joining two of its opposite angles.

Let A C D B (fig. 64) be a parallelogram of which B C is a diameter; the opposite sides and angles of the figure, are equal to one another; and the diameter B C bisects it.

Because A B is parallel to C D, and B C meets them, the alternate angles A B C, B C D are equal to one another; and because A C is parallel to B D, and B C meets them, the alternate angles A C B, C B D are equal to one another, wherefore the two triangles A B C, C B D have two angles A B C, B C A in one, equal to two angles B C D, C B D in the other, each to each and the side B C which is adjacent to these equal angles, common to the two triangles; therefore their other sides are equal, each to each, and the third angle of the one to the third angle of the other, viz: the side A B to the side C D, and A C to B D, and the angle B A C equal to the angle B D C. And because the angle A B C is equal to the angle B C D, and the angle C B D to the angle A C B, the whole angle A B D is equal to the whole angle A C D: and the angle B A C has been shown to be equal to the angle B D C; therefore the opposite sides and angles of a parallelogram are equal to one another, also its diameter bisects it; for A B being equal to C D, and B C common, the two A B, B C are equal to the two D C, C B, each to each; now the angle A B C is equal to the angle B C D; therefore the triangle A B C is equal (78) to the triangle B C D, and the diameter B C divides the parallelogram A C D B into two equal parts.

THEOREM XIII.

93. Parallelograms upon the same base and between the same parallels, are equal to one another.

Let the parallelograms A B C D, E B C F (figs. 65, 66, and 67) be upon the same base B C, and between the same parallels A F, B C; the parallelogram A B C D is equal to the parallelogram E B C F.

If the sides A D, D F of the parallelograms A B C D, D B C E opposite to the base B C be terminated in the same point D; it is plain that each of the pa-

rallelograms is double (92) of the triangle B D C; and they are therefore equal to one another.

But if the sides A D, E F, opposite to the base B C of the parallelograms A B C D, E B C F, be not terminated in the same point; then because A B C D is a parallelogram, A D is equal (92) to B C; for the same reason E F is equal to B C; wherefore A D is equal (1 A x) to E F; and D E is common; therefore the whole, or the remainder, A E is equal (2 or 3 A x) to the whole, or the remainder D F; now A B is also equal to D C, therefore the two E A, A B are equal to the two F D, D C, each to each; but the exterior angle F D C is equal to the interior E A B, wherefore the base E B is equal to the base F C, and the triangle E A B (78) to the triangle F D C. Take the triangle F D C from the trapezium A B C F, and from the same trapezium take the triangle E A B; the remainder will then be equal (3 A x,) that is the parallelogram A B C D is equal to the parallelogram E B C F.

THEOREM XIV.

94. Equal triangles upon the same base, and upon the same side of it, are between the same parallels.

Let the equal triangles A B C, D B C (fig. 68) be upon the same base B C, and upon the same side of it; they are between the same parallels.

Join A D: A D is parallel to B C; for, if it is not, through the point A draw (88) A E parallel to B C, and join E C. The triangle A B C is equal to the triangle E B C, because it is upon the same base B C and between the same parallels B C, A E. But the triangle A B C is equal to the triangle B D C; therefore also the triangle B D C is equal to the triangle E B C, the greater to the less, which is impossible; Therefore A E is not parallel to B C. In the same manner it may be demonstrated that no other line but A D is parallel to B C: A D is therefore parallel to it.

THEOREM XV.

95. If a parallelogram and a triangle be upon the same base, and between the same parallel; the parallelogram is double of the triangle.

Let the parallelogram A B C D (Fig. 69,) and the triangle E B C be upon the same base B C and between the same parallels B C, A E; the parallelogram A B C D is double of the triangle E B C.

Join A C; then the triangle A B C is equal to the triangle E B C, because they are upon the same base B C and between the same parallels B C, A E.

But the parallelogram A B C D is double (92) of the triangle A B C, because the diameter A C divides it into two equal parts; wherefore A B C D is also double of the triangle E B C.

THEOREM XVI.

96. The complements of the parallelograms which are about the diameter of any parallelogram, are equal to one another.

Let A B C D (fig. 70) be a parallelogram of which the diameter is A C; let E H, F G be the parallelograms about A C, that is through which A C passes and let B K, K D be the other parallelograms, which make up the whole figure A B C D, and are therefore called the complements. The complement B K is equal to the complement K D.

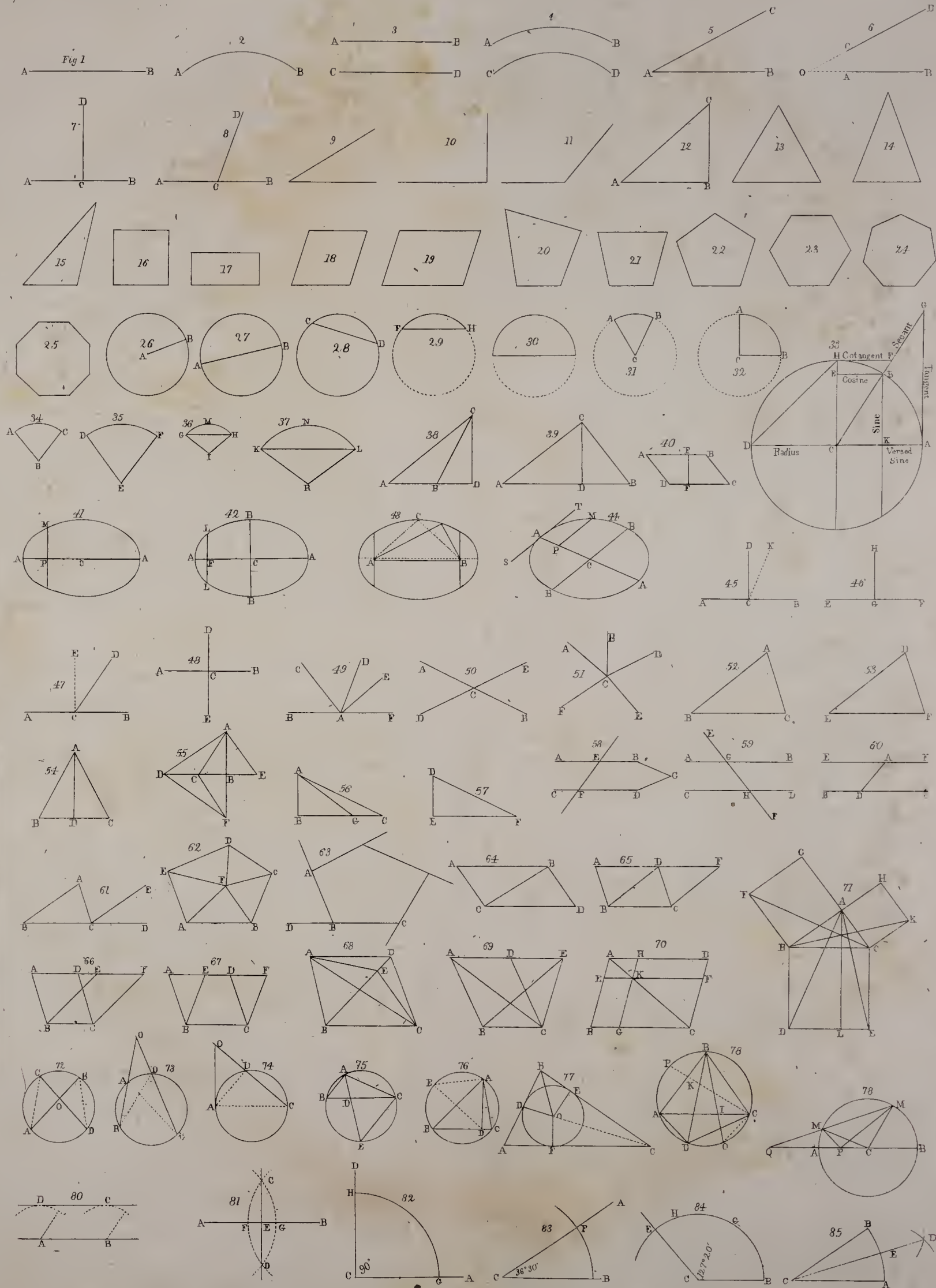
Because A B C D is a parallelogram and A C its diameter, the triangle A B C is equal (90) to the triangle A D C: And because E K H A is a parallelogram, and A K its diameter, the triangle A E K is equal to the triangle A H K: For the same reason, the triangle K G C is equal to the triangle K F C. Then because the triangle A E K is equal to the triangle A H K, and the triangle K G C to the triangle K F C; the triangle A E K together with the triangle K G C is equal to the triangle A H K together with the triangle K F C. But the whole triangle A B C is equal to the whole A D C; therefore the remaining complement B K is equal to the remaining complement K D.

THEOREM XVII.

97. In any right-angled triangle the square which is described upon the side subtending the right angle is equal to the squares described upon the sides which contain the right angle.

Let A B C (fig. 71) be a right angled triangle having the right angle B A C; the square described upon the side B C is equal to the squares described upon B A, A C.

On B C describe the square B D E C, and on B A, A C the squares G B, H C; and through A draw (86) A L parallel to B D or C E and join A D, F C; then because each of the angles B A C, B A G is a right angle (22) the two straight lines A C, A G upon the opposite sides of A B, make with it at the point A the adjacent angles equal to two right angles; therefore C A is the same straight line with A G; for the same reason A B, and A H are in the same straight line. Now because the angle D B C is equal to the angle F B A, each of them being a right angle, adding to each the angle A B C, the whole angle D B A will be equal to the whole F B C; and because the two sides A B, B D, are equal to the two F B, B C, each to each, and the angle D B A equal to the angle F B C, therefore the base A D is equal (78) to the base F C; and the triangle A B D to the triangle F B C. but the parallelogram B L is double (95) of the triangle A B D, because they are upon the same base B D, and between the same parallels B D, A L, and the square G B is double of the triangle F B C, because these also are upon the same base F B and between the same parallels F B, G C. Now the doubles of equals are equal to one another, therefore the parallelogram B L is equal to the square G B: And in the same manner, by joining A E, B K, it is demonstrated that the parallelogram C L is equal to the square H C. Therefore the whole square B D E C is equal to the two squares G B, H C, and the square B D E C is described upon the straight line B C, and the squares G B, H C, upon B A, A C: Wherefore the square upon the side B C, is equal to the squares upon the sides B A, A C.



98. Cor. Hence in any right angled triangle, if we have the hypotenuse and one of the legs, we may easily find the other leg, by taking the square of the given leg, from the square of the hypotenuse the square root of the remainder will be the sought leg. Thus if the hypotenuse was 50 and one leg was 40 the other leg would be 30, for the square of 40 is 1600, and the square of 50 is 2500, by subtracting 1600 from 2500, it leaves 900, and the square root of 900 is 30. If both legs be given the hypotenuse may be found by extracting the square root of the sum of the squares of the legs, for we know that 6, 8 and 10 will form a right angled triangle, therefore the square of 6 is 36 and the square of 8 is 64, thus adding 36 and 64 together gives 100 whose square root is 10, which is the sought hypotenuse.

THEOREM XVIII.

99. The segments of two chords, which intersect each other, in a circle are reciprocally proportional.

Let the chords A B, and C D, (fig. 72) intersect at O, then will $AO : DO :: OC : OB$. Join A C and B D. In the triangles A C O, B O D the angles at O are equal, being vertical; the angle A is equal to the angle D, because both are inscribed in the same segment; for the same reason the angle C=B; the triangles are therefore similar and the homologous sides give the proportion $AO : DO :: OC : OB$.

100. Cor. Therefore $AO \cdot OB = DO \cdot OC$; hence the rectangle under the two segments of the one chord is equal to the rectangle under the two segments of the other.

THEOREM XIX.

101. If from the same point without a circle, two secants be drawn terminating in the concave arc, the whole secants will be reciprocally proportional to their external segments.

Let the secants O B, O C (fig. 73) be drawn from the point O: then will $OB : OC :: OD : OA$. For joining A C, B D, the triangles O A C, O B D have the angle O common; likewise the angle B=C; these triangles are therefore similar; and their homologous side give the proportion $OB : OC :: OD : OA$.

102. Cor. The rectangle $OA \cdot OB$ is equal to the rectangle $OC \cdot OD$.

103. Scholium. This proposition, it may be observed, bears a great analogy to the preceeding, and differs from it only as the two chords A B, C D, instead of intersecting each other within, cut each other without, the circle. The following proposition may also be regarded as a particular case of the proposition just demonstrated.

THEOREM XX.

104. If from the same point without a circle, a tangent and a secant be drawn, the tangent will be a mean proportional between the secant and its external segment.

From the point O (fig. 74,) let the tangent O A, and the secant O C be drawn; then will, $OC : OA :: OA : OD$, or $OA^2 = OC \cdot OD$.

For joining A D and A C, the triangles O A D, O A C have the angle O common; also the angle O A D, formed by a tangent and a chord, has for its measure half of the arc A D; and the angle C has the same measure; hence the angle O A D=C therefore the two triangles are similar, and we have the proportion, $OC : OA :: OA : OD$, which gives $OA^2 = OC \cdot OD$. (100).

THEOREM XXI.

105. If either angle of a triangle is bisected by a line terminated on the opposite side, the rectangle of the sides including the bisected angles is equal to the square of the bisecting line together with the rectangle contained by the segment of the third side.

Let A D (fig. 75) bisect the angle A; then will $A : B : A C = A D^2 + B D \cdot D C$. Describe a circle through the three points A, B, C; produce A D till it meets the circumference, and joins C E.

The triangle B A D is similar to the triangle E A C; for by hypothesis the angle B A D=E A C: also the angle B=E since they both are measured by half of the arc A C; hence these triangles are similar and the homologous sides give the proportion, $BA : AE :: AD : AC$; hence $BA \cdot AC = AE \cdot AD$; but $AE = AD + DE$ and multiplying each of these equals by A D, we have $AE \cdot AD = AD^2 + A D \cdot DE$; now $AD \cdot DE = BD \cdot DC$ hence finally $BA \cdot AC = AD^2 + BD \cdot DC$.

THEOREM XXII.

106. In every triangle the rectangle contained by two sides, is equal to the rectangle contained by the diameter of the circumscribed circle, and the perpendicular let fall upon the third side.

In the triangle A B C (fig. 76) let A D be drawn perpendicular to B C; and let E C be the diameter of the circumscribed circle; then will $AB \cdot AC = AD \cdot EC$.

For joining A E, the triangles A B D, A E C are right-angled the one at D, the other at A; also the angle B=E; these triangles are therefore similar, and they give the proportion, $AB : CE :: AD : AC$ and hence $AB \cdot AC = CE \cdot AD$.

107. Cor. If these equal quantities be multiplied by the same quantity B C there will result $AB \cdot AC \cdot BC = CE \cdot AD \cdot BC$; now $AD \cdot BC$ is double of the surface of the triangle; therefore the product of the three sides of a triangle is equal to its surface multiplied by twice the diameter of the circumscribed circle.

The product of three lines is sometimes called a *solled*, for a reason that shall be seen afterwards. Its value is easily conceived, by imagining that the lines are reduced into numbers, and multiplying these numbers together.

108. Scholium. It may also be demonstrated, that the surface of a triangle is equal to its perimeter multiplied by half the radius of the inscribed circle.

For the triangles A O B, B O C, A O C as in (fig. 77;) which have a common vertex at O, have for their common altitude the radius of the inscribed circle; hence the sum of these triangles will be equal to the sum of the bases A B, B C, A C, multiplied by half the radius O D; hence the surface of the triangle A B C is equal to the perimeter multiplied by half the radius of the inscribed circle.

THEOREM XXIII.

109. In every quadrilateral inscribed in a circle, the rectangle of the two diagonals is equal to the sum of the rectangles of the opposite sides.

In the quadrilateral A B C D (fig. 78); we shall have $AC \cdot BD = AB \cdot C D + AD \cdot BC$.

Take the arc C O=A D, and draw B O meeting the diagonal A C in I.

The angle A B D=C B I, since the one has for its measure half of the arc A D, and the other half of C O, equal to A D; the angle A D B=B C I, because they are both inscribed in the same segment A O B; hence the triangle A B D is similar to the triangle I B C, and we have the proportion $AD : C I :: BD : B C$, hence $AD \cdot BC = C I \cdot BD$. Again the triangle A B I is similar to the triangle B D C; for the arc A D being equal to C O, if O D be added to each of them, we shall have the arc A O=D C; hence the angle A B I is equal to D B C; also the angle B A I to B D C, because they are inscribed in the same segment; hence the triangles A B I, D B C, are similar, and the homologous sides give the proportion $AB : BD :: AI : CD$; hence $AB \cdot C D = AI \cdot BD$.

Adding the two results obtained, and observing that $AI \cdot BD + C I \cdot BD = (AI + C I) \cdot BD = AC \cdot BD$, we shall have $AD \cdot BC + AB \cdot C D = AC \cdot BD$.

110. Scholium. Another theorem concerning the inscribed quadrilateral may be demonstrated in the same manner.

The similarity of the triangles A B D and B I C give the proportion $BD : B C :: AB : B I$; hence $B I \cdot BD = B C \cdot A B$. If C O be joined the triangle I C O, similar to A B I, will be similar to B D C, and will give the proportion $BD : C O :: DC : O I$; hence $O I \cdot BD = C O \cdot DC$, or because $CO = AD$, $O I \cdot BD = AD \cdot DC$.

Adding the two results, and observing that $B I \cdot BD + O I \cdot BD$ is the same as $B O \cdot BD$, we shall have $B O \cdot BD = AB \cdot BC + AD \cdot DC$.

If B P had been taken equal to A D and C K P been drawn, a similar train of reasoning would have given us, $C P \cdot CA = AB \cdot AD + BC \cdot C D$.

But the arc B P being equal to C O, if B C be added to each of them it will follow that $CBP = BCO$; the chord C P is therefore equal to the chord B O and consequently B O B D and C P C A are to each other as B D is to C A; hence, $B D : C A :: AB \cdot BC + AD \cdot DC : AD \cdot AB + BC \cdot C D$.

Therefore the two diagonals of an inscribed quadrilateral are to each other, as the sums of the rectangles under the sides which meet at their extremities.

These two theorems may serve to find the diagonals when the sides are given.

THEOREM XXIV.

111. If a point be taken on the radius of a circle and this radius be then produced and a second point be taken on it without the circumference of the circle these points being so situated that the radius of the circle shall be a mean proportional between their distances from the centre then if lines be drawn from these points to any point of the circumference, the ratio (of these lines) will be constant.

Let P (fig. 79) be the point within the circumference, and Q the point without; then if $CP : CA :: CA : CQ$, the ratio of Q M and M P will be the same, for all positions of the point M.

For by hypothesis, $CP : CA :: CA : CQ$; or substituting C M for C A, $CP : C M :: C M : C Q$; hence the triangles C P M, C Q M, have each an equal angle C contained by proportional sides; hence they are similar (102); and hence the third side M P is to the third side M Q as C P is to C M or C A.

But by division, the proportion $CP : CA :: CA : CQ$ gives $CP : C A :: C A - C P : C Q - C A$ or $CP : C A :: AP : A Q$; therefore $MP : MQ :: AP : A Q$.

PRACTICAL GEOMETRY.

PROBLEM I.

112. At a given distance, parallel to a given straight line A B, (fig. 80. pl. 2.) to draw a straight line, C D.

In the given straight line A B, take any two points as A D or B C in your compasses, with one foot in A describe the arc at D, also in B describe another at C draw a line through C and D and it is done; for the line C D will be parallel to the line A B.

PROBLEM II.

113. To bisect or divide a given straight line A B (fig. 81.) by a perpendicular.

Take any distance in your compasses greater than half the line A B, then with one foot in B describe the arc C F D; with the same distance, and one foot in A, describe the arc C G D; cutting the former arc in C and D; draw the line C D, and it will bisect A B in the point E perpendicular.

PROBLEM III.

114. To make an angle that shall contain any proposed number of degrees, from a given point, in a given line.

Case 1. When the given angle is right or contains 90° let C A (fig. 32) be the given line, and C the given point.

On C erect a perpendicular C D and it is done, for the angle D C A is an angle of 90° , or thus on the point C, as a centre with the chord* of 60° in your compasses, describe an arc G H and set off thereon from G to H the distance of the chord of 90° and from C through H draw C H D, which will form the required angle D C A of 90° .

115. Case 2. When the angle is acute as (fig. 33;) as for example $36^\circ 30'$ let C B be the given line and C the point at which the angle is to be made.

With the chord of 60° in your compasses and one foot in C as a centre describe the arc F B, on which set off from B to F, the given angle $36^\circ 30'$ taken from the line of chords; through F and the centre C draw the right line A C, and it is done, for the angle A C B will be an angle of $36^\circ 30'$ as was required.

116. Case 3. When the given angle is obtuse, as for example $127^\circ 20'$ let C B (fig. 34) be the given line and C the angular point.

Take the chord of 60° in your compasses, and with one foot in C as a centre, describe an arc B G H E, upon which set off the chord of 60° (which you already have in your compasses) from B to G, and from G to H; then set off from G to E, the excess of the given angle above 60° which is $67^\circ 20'$ taken from the line of chords; or you can set off from H to E the excess of the given angle above 120° which is $67^\circ 20'$ draw the line C E and it is done, for the angle E C B will be an angle of $127^\circ 20'$ as required.

PROBLEM IV.

117. To bisect a given arc of a circle as A B (fig. 35) whose centre is C.

Take in your compasses any extent greater than the half of A B, and with one foot in A describe an arc; with the same extent and one foot in B, describe another arc, cutting the former in D; join C D and it is done, for this line will bisect the arc A B in the point E, and divides it into two equal parts.

PROBLEM V.

118. From a given point B (*Geometry, Plate III. fig. 1.*) at the extremity of a given straight line, A B, to draw a perpendicular.

Take any point, E above the line A B, and, with the radius B E, describe the arc d B C cutting A B in d: draw the straight line d E C, and join B C, which will be the perpendicular required.

PROBLEM VI.

119. From a given point C (fig. 2) to let fall a perpendicular to a given straight line A B.

From the point C, with any radius greater than the distance of A B, describe an arc cutting A B at e and f; from the points e and f, as centres with any equal radius greater than the half of A B, describe arcs cutting each other in D, and draw C D, which will be the perpendicular required.

PROBLEM VII.

120. To describe the segment of a circle, which shall have a given length or chord, A B (fig. 3) and a given breadth or versed sine, C D.

Bisect the straight line A B by a perpendicular C E; from the point D, where the perpendicular cuts the chord A B, make D C equal to the breadth, or versed sine; join A C; and make the angle C A E equal to the angle A C E; from E as a centre, with the radius E A or E C, describe the arc A C B which will be the segment required.

PROBLEM VIII.

121. Through three given points A, B, C, (fig. 4) to describe the circumference of a circle.

Join A B, B C and bisect each of the lines A B and B C, by a perpendicular, and let the perpendiculars meet each other in I: from the centre I, with the distance I A, I B, or I C, describe the circle A B C, which is that required.

PROBLEM IX.

122. Upon a given straight line A B (fig. 5) to describe an equilateral triangle.

From the centres A and B, with the radius A B, describe arcs cutting each other at C, join A C and B C, then A B C will be the equilateral triangle required.

PROBLEM X.

123. Upon a given straight line A B (fig. 6) to describe a square.

From the point B draw B C perpendicular to A B, make B C equal to A B: from the points A and C as centres, with a radius equal to A B or B C describe arcs cutting each other in D and join A D and D C; then A B C D is the square required.

* For the description of the line of chords see (fig. 6, pl. 1.) which will be explained hereafter.

PROBLEM XI.

124. Upon a given straight line A B, (figs. 7 and 8) to describe a regular polygon of any number of sides.

Produce the side A B to P, and on A P, from the centre B, describe a semicircle A C P; divide the semi-circumference A C P into as many equal parts as the number of sides intended: through the second division, from P draw the line B C; bisect A B and B C by perpendiculars cutting each other in S; from S, with the radius A S, B S or C S describe a circle A B C D E, then carry the side A B or B C round the remaining part of the arc, which will be found to contain the remaining sides of the number required.

Fig. 7 is an example of a pentagon; fig. 8 is an example of a hexagon; but in this figure, we need not proceed by the general method; we have only to make a radius of the given side A B and take the points A and B as centres; and from the arcs A G and B G and strike a circle with the radius G A or G B, which will contain the side A B six times.

PROBLEM XII.

125. In a given square, A B C D (fig. 9) to inscribe a regular octagon, so that four alternate sides of the octagon, may coincide with four sides of the square.

Draw the diagonals A C and B D, cutting each other in S: on the sides of the square make A L, A F, B E, B H: C G, C K; and D I, D M, each equal to half the diagonal; join M E, F G, H I, K L; then will F G H I K L M E F be the octagon required.

PROBLEM XIII.

126. In a given triangle A B C (fig. 10) to describe a circle.

Bisect any two angles, A and B by the straight lines A E and B E and the point E, the intersection of these two lines will be the centre of the inscribed circle; draw E D perpendicular to A B cutting A B in D; from E with the radius E D, describe the circle D F G, which will be inscribed in the triangle A B C, as required.

PROBLEM XIV.

127. A circle, D E F, (fig. 11,) and a line A B, touching it, being given, to find the point of contact.

From the centre C draw the perpendicular C D cutting A B in D, which is the point of contact required.

PROBLEM XV.

128. Two straight lines, A B, B C (fig. 12) forming any angle being given to describe a circle to touch each of these lines at a given point A, in one of them.

Make B C equal to B A, and draw A D perpendicular to A B, and C D perpendicular to B C: from the point of intersection D, with the radius D A or D C describe the circle A C E which is that required.

PROBLEM XVI.

129. In a given circle A B C D (fig. 13) to describe a square.

Draw the diameters A C and B D at right angles, and join A B, B C, C D, D A, then A B C D will be the square required.

PROBLEM XVII.

130. To describe a segment, A B C of a circle by means of an angle.

Let A B (fig. 14) be the length or chord and D C the versed sine, join C A and C B produce C A to F and C B to E making C E and C F of any length, not less than the chord A B prepare two straight edges, C E and C F and fasten them together at the angle C so that their outer edges may form the angle A C B and to keep them to the extent, fix another slip across them at D to keep them tight: put in pins at A and B, and move the angle thus formed round these pins, hold a pencil to the angular point at C, it will describe the segment required.

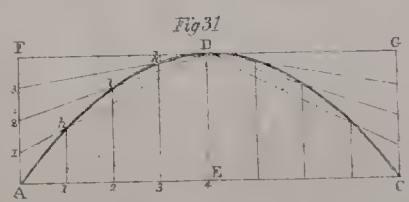
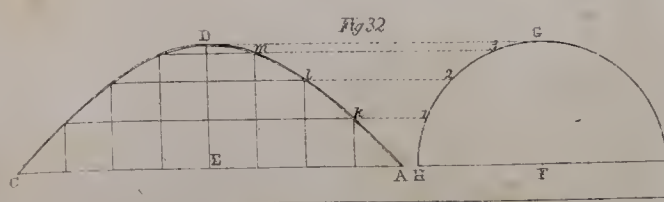
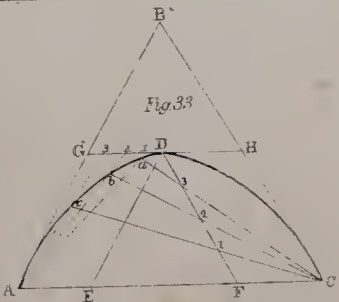
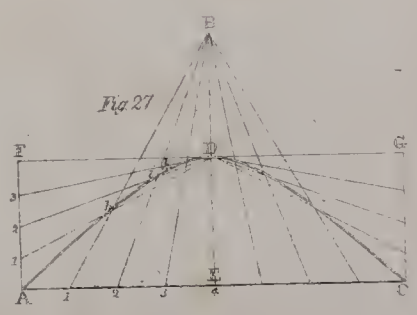
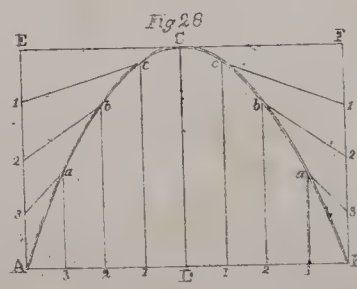
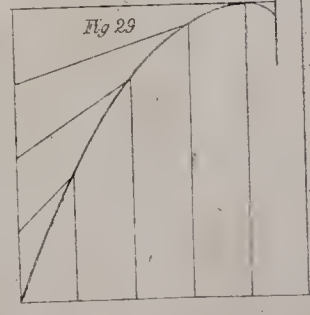
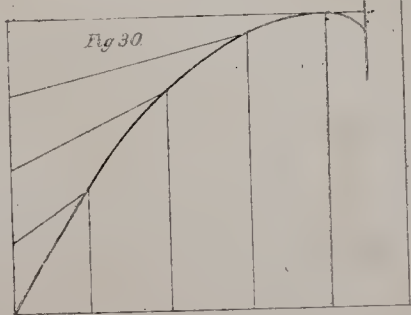
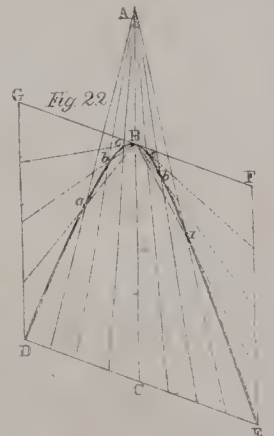
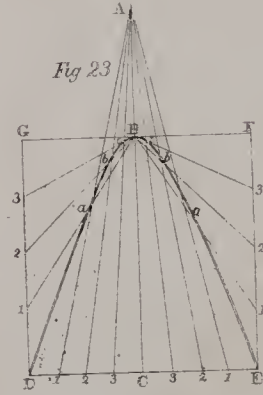
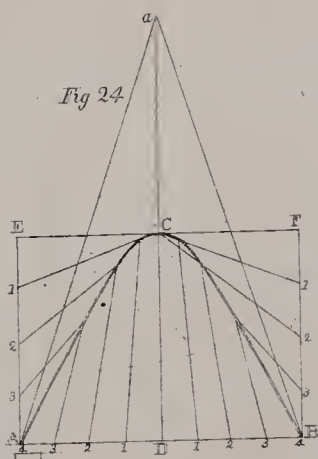
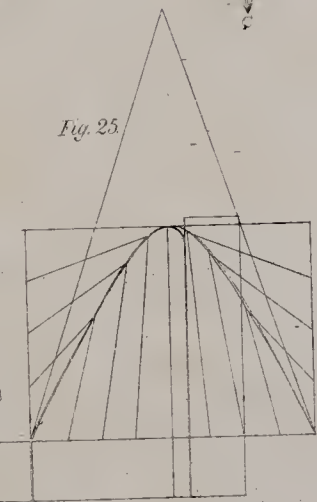
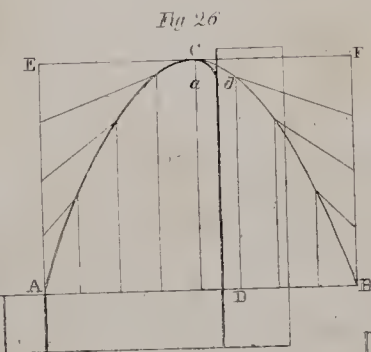
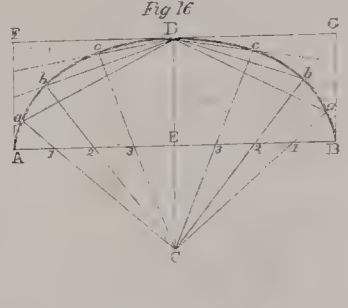
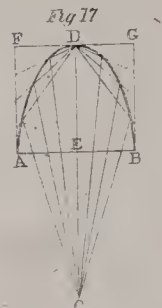
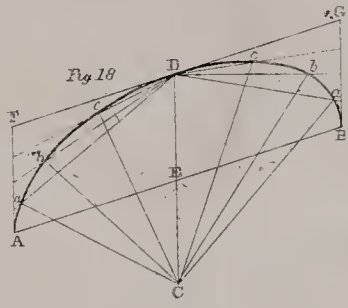
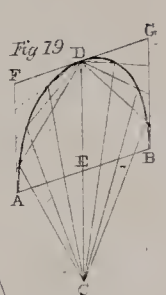
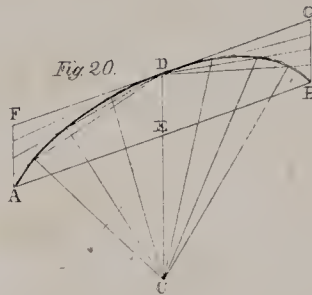
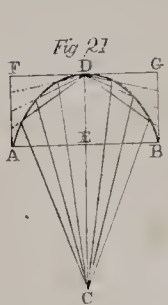
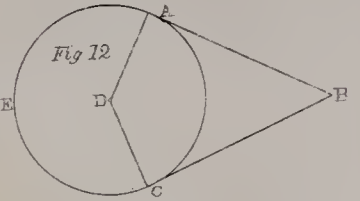
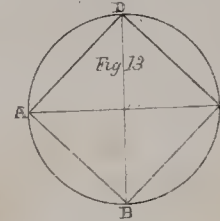
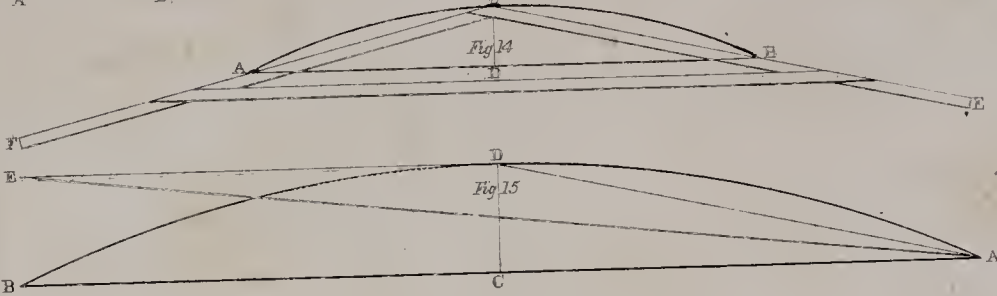
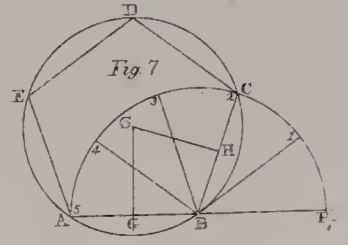
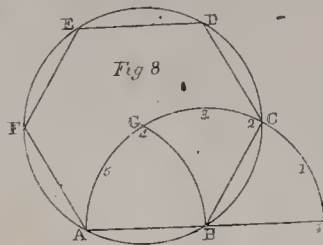
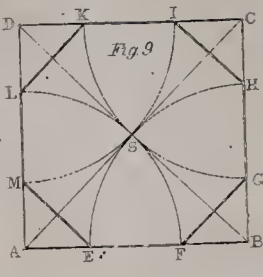
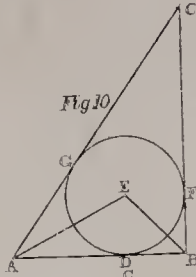
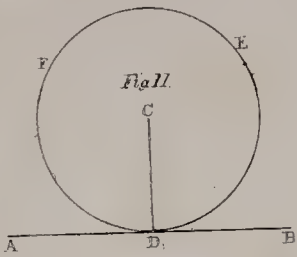
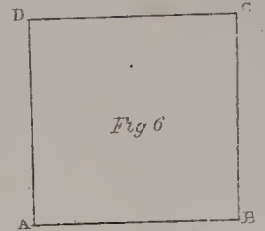
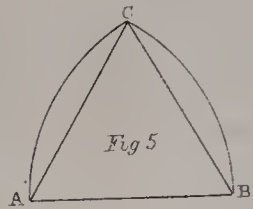
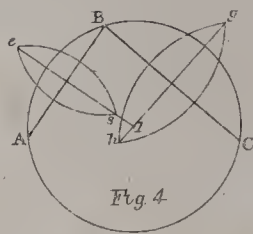
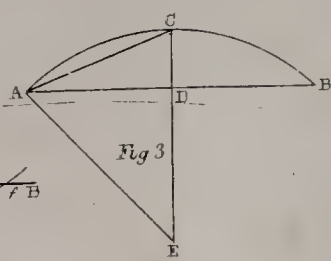
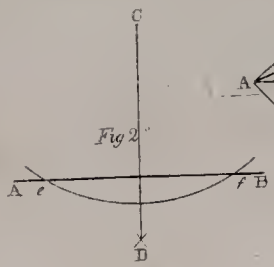
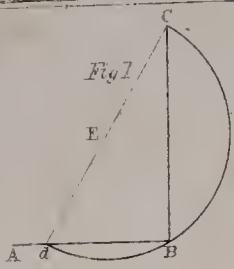
ANOTHER METHOD.

131. Let A B (fig. 15) be the length of the chord, and C D the versed sine, (or the perpendicular height in the middle) join A D, and draw D E parallel to A B, making D E of any length not less than A D, form a triangular piece of wood, A D E: bring the angular point D of the triangle, to the point A, (put in pins at the points A D B) and move the triangle, so that the side D A may slide upon A, and the side D E upon D; then if during the motion a pencil be held at the angular point D, with its point tracing over the plane, the arc A D will be described by the point of the pencil, the arc A D being described, the arc D B will be described, in a similar manner: and consequently, the whole segment of the circle, as required to be done.

PROBLEM XVIII.

132. To describe an ellipsis, or any segment of an ellipsis, having a diameter and a double ordinate, by means of points being found in the curve, without finding the parameter.

Let A B (fig. 16,) be a diameter (or double ordinate) let C D be its conjugate, and let E D be the height of the segment. Through D draw F G parallel to A B; also through the points A and B draw A F, and B C parallel to D E cutting F G in F and G. Divide A E and E B into a like number of equal parts, as four; likewise B G, and A F, into the same number of equal parts. From the point D, through the points 1, 2, 3, in A F, and B G, draw 1 D, 2 D, 3 D. From



the point C, through the points 1, 2, 3, in A B draw Ca, Cb, Cc, cutting the lines 1 D 2 D 3 D, in a, b, c, they will be in the periphery of the ellipsis; a curve being traced through these points, will form the ellipsis required.

But if the curve is very large, as in practical works the best way is to put in nails or pins at the points, a, b, c, &c. bend a slip round them, and draw a curve by it, it will appear quite regular.

(Figures 17, 18, 19, 20, and 21) are drawn in a similar manner.

PROBLEM XIX.

133. To describe a hyperbola by finding points in the curve, having the diameter or axis A B (in figs. 22 and 23) its abscissa B C and double ordinate D E. Through B draw G F parallel to D E; from D and E draw D G and E F parallel to B C cutting G F in F and G. Divide C D and C E, each into any number of equal parts, as four through the points of division 1, 2, 3, draw lines to A.

Likewise divide D G and E F, into the same number of equal parts, viz. four from the divisions on D G and E F draw lines to B and a curve being drawn, through the intersections at B a b c E, will be the hyperbola required.

(Figures 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, and 30.) Need no explanation, they being drawn in a similar manner.

PROBLEM XX.

134. To describe a parabola upon a given ordinate, A E, and a given abscissa E D (fig. 31.) Make E C equal to E A, and complete the rectangle A F G C; so that the opposite side may pass through D. Proceed as in problem 15 excepting that, instead of drawing the lines 1, 2, 3, &c. to A as in (figs. 22 and 23) draw them perpendicular to A C.

PROBLEM XXI.

135. To describe the figure of the sines (fig. 32) describe the quadrant F H G equal to the height of the figure, and divide the arc H G into any number of equal parts, the more of these the more perfect will be the operation; and extend the chords to double the number of parts upon the line A C which is a continuation of F H, and make the points of division.

Draw the lines 1 k, 2 l, 3 m, &c. perpendicular to A C; and from the points 1, 2, 3, &c. of division in the quadrant draw lines 1 k 2 l 3 m, &c. parallel to A C, and through the points A k l m, &c. draw a curve which will be the figure of the sines, as required.

PROBLEM XXII.

136. To describe a conic section, to touch two right lines A B (fig. 33) and B C, in the points A and C, and to pass through a given point D.

Join the points A, and C; through D, draw D E and D F, parallel to B A and B C, through D, draw G H parallel to A C, cutting B A and B C in G and H, and divide D G, and D H, D E, and D F each into the same number of equal parts. From C through the points 1, 2, 3, in D F draw the lines C a, C b, C c &c. from A, through the points 1, 2, 3, in D G, draw 1 A, 2 A, 3 A, cutting the former in a, b, c, which are in the curve.

In the same manner may points be found between D and C.

PROBLEM XXIII. PLATE 4.

137. To describe a triangle, whose three sides shall be equal to three given lines provided that any two of them are greater than the third.

Let A, B, C, (Geometry, plate 4, fig. 1) be the three given straight lines.

Take one of the given lines as A, and make the base of the triangle D E. Upon E, with the length of B in your compasses, describe an arc at F. Upon D with the length of C, describe another arc intersecting the former at F, and join D F, and F E, then D F E, is the triangle required.

In this manner a triangle may be made equal to another given triangle; for this is only making the sides of the triangle equal to those of the given triangle.

PROBLEM XXIV.

138. To form a trapezium from a given triangle, let G, I, H, (fig. 2) be the given triangle; and described in the same manner as (fig. 1.) The two sides G K, and I K being given, take the length of G K in your compasses and upon G describe an arc at K; upon I with the length of I K describe another arc intersecting the former at K, and join G K and I K: then is G K I H the trapezium required.

The line drawn G I, divides the trapezium into two obtuse angled triangles, and is called the base line, and to let fall the perpendiculars K, H to M and N on the base line G I; then it becomes four right angled triangles.

PROBLEM XXV.

139. To make a rectangle equal to a given triangle A B C (fig. 3.) It is required to make a rectangle equal to the given triangle. Draw D C perpendicular to A B, and divide D C into two equal parts at g, through g draw E F, parallel to A B from B draw B F, perpendicular to A B, through A draw A E parallel to B F. Then the rectangle A B E F will be equal to the triangle A B C, as required to be done.

PROBLEM XXVI.

140. To make a square equal to a given rectangle. Let A B C D (fig. 4) be the given rectangle produce the side A B of the rectangle to h, and make B h, equal to B C draw B G perpendicular A B; and on i h as a diameter, describe the semicircle A G h, and on the straight line B G describe the square B G F E; which is the thing required to be done.

We now see that a triangle may be reduced to a rectangle, and a rectangle may be reduced to a square; therefore a triangle may be reduced to a square.

(Figures 5 and 6) these two figures are described similar to the figures 1 and 2.

PROBLEM XXVII.

141. Given two circles to find a third equal to them both.

Let A B and A C (fig. 7) be the diameters of the given circles, perpendicular to each other at the point A; join C B on which, describe a circle and the thing is done.

PROBLEM XXVIII.

142. Given any two similar figures, to find another equal and similar to them both.

Let E and F (fig. 8) have their sides A B and A C placed perpendicular to each other join B C on which describe a figure similar to E or F, and the thing is done.

PROBLEM XXIX.

143. Given three straight lines to find a fourth proportional.

Let A C (fig. 9) be one of the given lines, make any angle with the line C E and from B, one extremity of another given line, draw B D the third any how to meet C E, and through A draw A E parallel to B D, and A E will be the fourth proportional required.

PROBLEM XXX.

144. Having given two lines, to find the third proportional.

Let C B and C D (fig. 10.) be the given lines, and let them have any inclination at the point C; join B D, and produce C D and C B to A and E making C A equal to C D; through A draw A E parallel to B D, and C E will be the third proportional required.

PROBLEM XXXI.

145. To find a line equal to a given arc of a circle.

Let A B C (fig. 11) be the given arc, join A C which bisect in D, by the perpendicular B D; join A B, and produce A C till A E be equal twice A B; divide C E into three equal parts, and make E F equal to one of these parts; then will A F be nearly equal to the arc A B C.

PROBLEM XXXII.

146. To divide a given line in the same proportion as another line is divided.

Let d e (fig. 12.) be the line proposed for division. On d e describe an equilateral triangle, d' C e; produce the sides C d and C e till each of them be equal to A B; join A B and from C to the points of division, f, g, h, draw the lines C f, C g, and C h, which will cut d e in the points i, h, l, in the same proportion as A B is cut. Or thus—

147. Let B D (fig. 13) be the given line whose divisions are required.

Upon B D raise B A perpendicular at the point B, which make equal to B D; produce A B till A C be equal to the given divided line C E, draw C E perpendicular to A C, and produce A D to E, to the points of division f, g, h, i; from A draw the lines A f, A g, A h, and A i, which will divide the line B D, in the given proportion.

PROBLEM XXXIII.

148. To divide a quadrant of a circle into any number of equal parts.

Bisect the diameter A B (fig. 14) perpendicularly in C, produce C E till E F be equal to three fourths of A C or B C, join F A which produce to meet D G, drawn through D parallel to A B: divide D G into the proposed number of equal parts in the points h, i, k, l, and join F h, F i, F k, and F l, which will divide the quadrant A D, into the proposed number of equal parts nearly.

PROBLEM XXXIV.

149 Having the abscissa E D (figs. 15 and 16) and a double ordinate A B to describe a parabola. Produce E D to B, making D B equal to D E and join A B and C B. Divide A B into any number of equal parts, numbering them from A to B, and divide B C into the same number of equal parts, numbering them from B to C, join 11, 22, 33, &c. and the parts of the straight lines, comprehended between the intersections, will form the parabola, being all tangents at different points.

PROBLEM XXXV.

150. To describe a parabola by a continued motion.

Let G H (fig. 17) be the straight edge of a ruler, and K L Q the internal right-angle of a square, and let the edge which is parallel to K L coincide with the straight edge G H. Suppose now one end of a string fastened at F, and the other end to the end G of the square. Let F I be perpendicular to G H, meeting G H in I. Suppose the ruler to remain fixed, and the square to be moved, keeping the upper edge against the straight edge G H: then if both parts, F M, M Q, be kept straight by a pencil at M the point M will describe the half of the parabolic curve.

PROBLEM XXXVI.

151. Given the axis major and two foci of a conic section, to describe the curve.

Let A B (figs. 21 and 27) be the axes major and the points F f, the foci. Pro-

duce BA, if necessary, to F, and make AI equal to AF; from the remote focus f , describe an arc QI. Through Q draw FM: then find the point M, by sloping with a compass or dividers, so that FM may be equal to MQ; then M is a point in the curve.

By employing F the same manner as has now been done, in respect to f , we shall obtain the curve r Bs.

N. B. In the ellipse (fig. 27) it will be most convenient to describe one-half by means of the focus f , and then the other by the other focus F.

In the parabola (fig. 20) the arc QI will become a straight line, this being understood the point M, and every other point will be found as in (figs. 21 and 27.)

PROBLEM XXXVII.

152. To describe an ellipse having the two axes given.

On A B (fig. 22) describe the rectangle G H I K, whose sides G H and G K are equal to the given axes. Divide C D into any number of parts, q, r, s, t , and D G into the same number a, b, c, d ; from B through the points of division q, r, s, t , draw lines B M &c. and from A to the points of division, a, b, c, d , draw Aa, Ab, &c. meeting the former in M, then will M be a point in the curve: and thus may all the points be found, through which draw the curve itself. If the curve is large it would be well to put in pins or nails at the points and bend a slip of wood around to draw the curve by.

PROBLEM XXXVIII.

153. The transverse and conjugate axes A B and D D in (fig. 23,) of an ellipse being given to find the two foci, from thence to describe an ellipse.

Let F and f be the foci make F M + f M equal to A B, supposing F M + f M to be a cord or string. Then move the point M, round taking care to keep the string always tight and the point M will in its motion, trace out the curve A D B D, which is the ellipse required.

PROBLEM XXXIX.

154. To describe an ellipse round a given rectangle.

In (fig. 24) let I T, be half the longest side of the rectangle and make I G equal to I T: join T G, cutting A B in H then G I is the semi-transverse and G H the difference of the semi-axes. Therefore, the curve may be described. Or thus—

In (fig. 25) g, i , is the semi-transverse, and g, h , the difference of the semi-axes. The point g , is supposed to move in the groove exhibited in one arm of the tram-mel, while h , moves in the other and the point i , traces out the curve.

PROBLEM XL.

155. To describe an ellipse by means of circles.

From the centre C (fig. 26) with a distance equal to the semi-conjugate, describe the quadrant D h, g , and from the same centre, with the semi-transverse as a distance, describe the arc i B, bisect D h g in h ; join C h which produce to i through h draw h, k parallel to C B and from i draw i k perpendicular to $h k$ then will k be a point in the curve, produce D C to L, and bisect the distance D k, perpendicularly, which bisecting line produce to meet D C in L, then will L be the center of the circle, describing one part of the curve.

Again; through l draw l m parallel to $h k$ meeting the arc D n m, in m; join m B, which produce to meet the curve in n, join n l cutting A B in g; g is the center of the circle whence the vertical part of the curve is described.

HYPERBOLA PROBLEMS XLI.

156. Given the transverse axis of an hyperbola and an ordinate, to find the conjugate axis and assymtotes, (which are two straight lines such as, if produced indefinitely with the curve will never meet each other) and thence to describe the curve itself

Let Aa (fig. 28) be the transverse axis, and let P M be an ordinate. Make P D equal to A P. Then on a D describe the semi-circle a N D, produce P M to N. Draw A R perpendicular to C D, and make A R equal to C A. Join N R and produce N R and D A, if necessary, to meet each other in S; and draw M S, cutting A R in Q, produce Q A to T and make A T equal to A Q. Then Q T will be the conjugate axis or A Q, A T, will each be the semi-conjugate axis.—Through the points C, T, draw J H; and through the points C Q, draw I K: then J H and I K are the assymtotes by which the curve may be described.

157. The three curves of the conic sections,—Problem.

The vertical section of a right cone being given and the position of the axes of a conic section, to describe that section.

Let A V B (fig. 29) be the section of a cone through its axes; let ig be the line of the axes, and let it cut the sections A V B at h , and the opposite side B V, produced, at g . On $g h$ describe the semicircle $h q s g$. Draw V p parallel to A B, cutting the axis in p . Bisect $h g$ in r and draw $p q, r s$, perpendicularly to $h g$. Make $p w$ equal $p V$; then with the transverse axis $h g$, at the ordinate $p w$, describe the ellipse $h w t g$, cutting $r s$ at t ; then $r t$ is the semi-conjugate axes.

GEOMETRY OF SOLIDS.

DEFINITIONS OF SOLIDS.

158 A RIGHT CYLINDER is that which is formed by the revolutions of a rectangle about one of its sides; the line round which the rectangle revolves is called the axis (plural axes); and the circles generated by the two opposite sides of the rectangles perpendicular to the axes, are termed the ends or bases. The

surface of the cylinder, generated by the line parallel to the axis, is termed the curved surface, which is either straight or convex, according as a straight edge is applied, parallel to the axis, or in any other direction.

159. A RIGHT CONE is that which is formed by supposing a right-angle triangle to revolve about one of its legs or perpendicular sides; the fixed leg, or line is called the axis; the surface generated by the other leg is called the base; and the surface formed by the hypotenuse, or sides opposite the right angle is denominated the curved surface, which is either straight or convex, according as a straight edge is applied upon the surface from the vertex, or in any other direction

160. A SPHERE OR GLOBE is that which is formed by supposing a semi-circle revolves upon its diameter; the diameter upon which the semi-circle revolves is called the axis, and the surface formed by the arc of the semi-circle is called the curved surface which is convex, in whatever way it may be tried by a straight edge.

161. AN ELLIPSOID is formed or generated by supposing a semi-ellipse to revolve upon one of its axis the axis thus fixed is called the axis of the ellipsoid, and the surface generated by the curve is termed the curved surface.

PROBLEM XLII.

162. To describe a conic section, from the cone, through a line given in position in the section passing through the axis.

Let A B C (Figures 1, 2, and 3 plate 5) be the section of a right cone, and let D E be the line of section. Through the apex or top of the cone, C, draw C F parallel to the base A B of the section, and produce E D to meet A B in D, as in figures 2 and 3 or A B produced in G, as in fig. 1, as also to meet C F in F. On A B describe a semi circle which will be equal to half the base of the cone, in the semi-circle take any number of points, a, b, c , &c. Draw D d, in figures 2 and 3 and G d in fig. 1, perpendicular to A B and G d in fig. 1. perpendicular to G F; as also D d, figures 2 and 3, perpendicular to D F: From the points a, b, c , &c. draw lines $a e, b f, c g$, &c., cutting G d (fig. 1) and D d (figs. 2 and 3) in the points e, f, g , &c. in figure 1, make in G e, G f, G g, &c. equal to G e, G f, G g, &c. and in D d, (figs. 2 and 3) make D e, D f, D g, &c. equal to D e, D f, D g, &c.—Through the points e, f, g , &c. draw lines to F. Through the points a, b, c , &c., draw lines perpendicular to A B. From the points of section in A B, draw lines to the vertex C of the cone cutting the sectional line, D E, in l, m, n , &c. Through the points of section l, m, n , &c. draw $l h, m i, n k$, &c. perpendicular to D E. Through the points D, h, i, k , in fig. 1 or d, h, i, k , &c. in figs. 2 and 3, draw a curve which will be the conic section required.

OBSERVATIONS.

163. In the first of these figures, the line of section cuts both sides of the section of the cone in this case the curve D h i k and e E is an Ellipse. In fig. 2 the line of section D E is parallel to the side A C of the section of the cone; in this case the curve $d h i$ &c. E is a Parabola. In fig. 3. the line of section, D E is not parallel to any side of the cone; it must therefore, when produced with the sides of the section through the axis, meet each of these two sides in different points, in this case, the section d, h, i , &c. E is either an Ellipse or Hyperbola but the case is determined to be an hyperbola by the line of section meeting the opposite side B C at A C, where it cuts above the vertex, at the point B.

Hence we may observe, that the line of section, D E is the same as that which has before been called the abscissa the part E B produced, contained between the two sides of the section is called the axis major; and the line D d, perpendicular to D E, an ordinate.

Hence the same section may be found by the method already shown in the problem; viz. by drawing any straight line $d e b$, fig. 4; make $d e$ equal to D E, fig. 3, and $e b$ equal to E B, fig. 3. Through d draw the straight line D D at right angles to $d b$: make $d i$ equal to D d, fig. 3. then with the axis major $b e$ the abscissa $e d$, and the ordinate $d D$, on each side of the abscissa describe the curve of the hyperbola which will be of the same species as that shown in fig. 3.

PROBLEM XLIII.

164. To describe a cylindric section through a line given in position upon the section passing through its axis (fig. 4.)

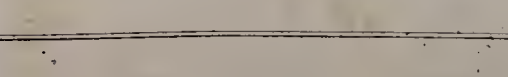
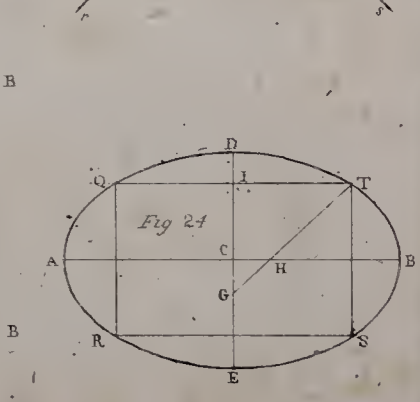
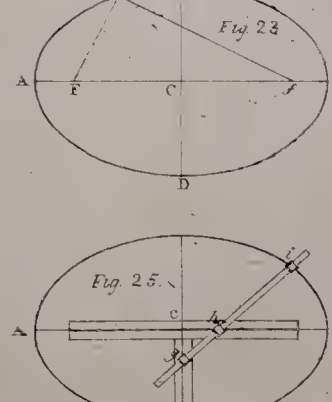
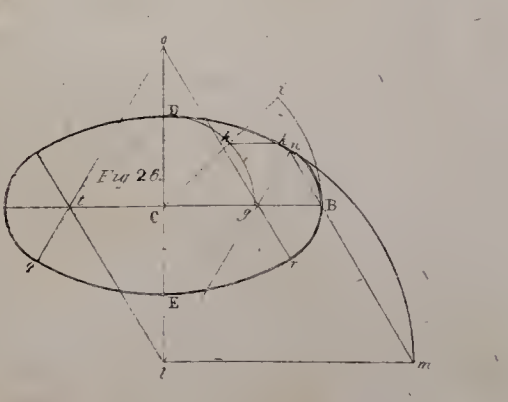
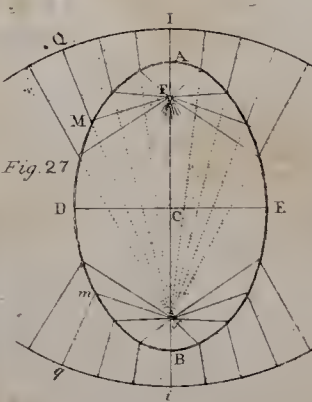
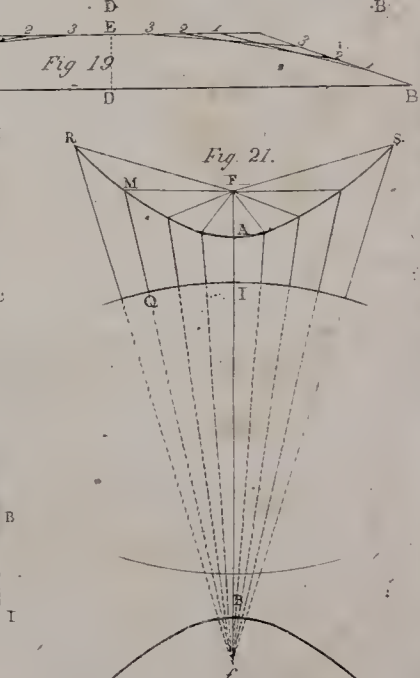
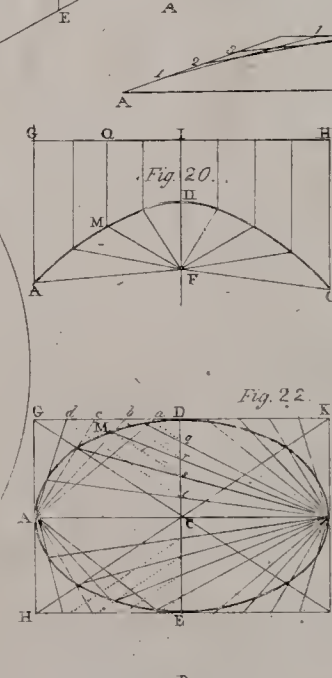
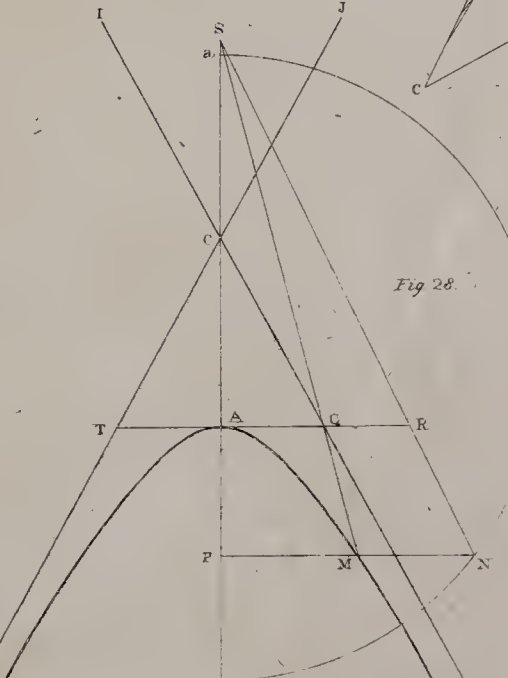
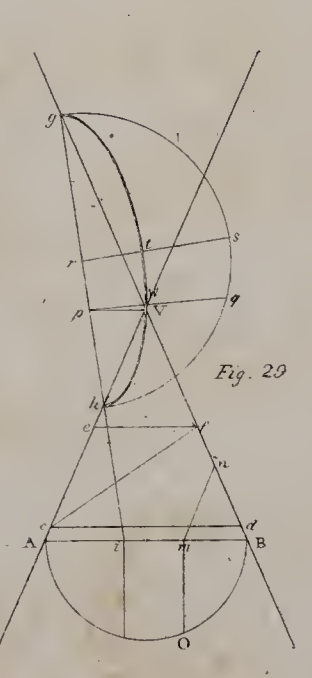
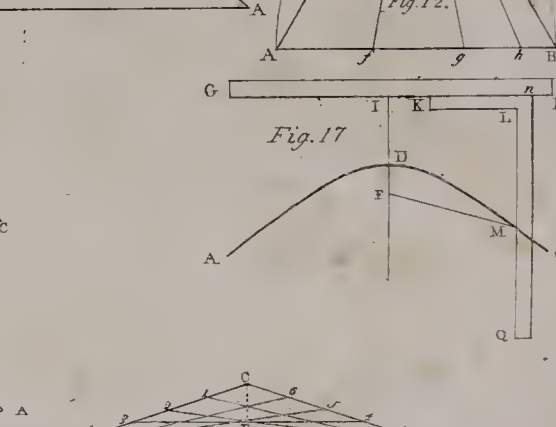
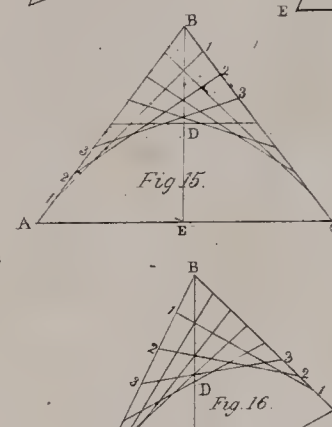
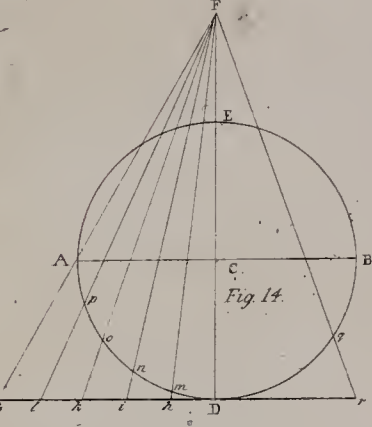
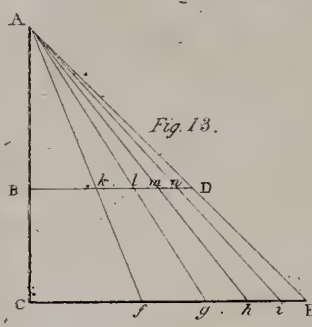
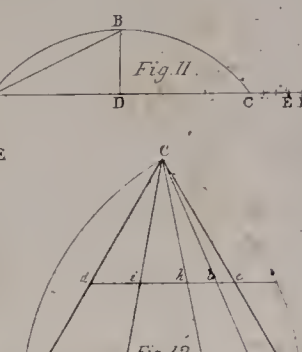
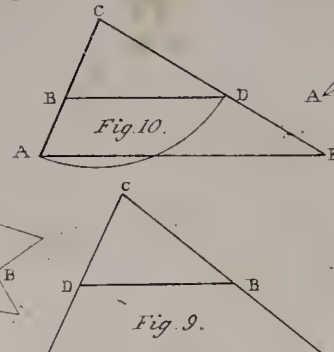
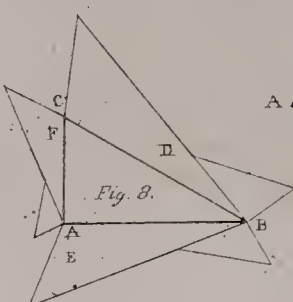
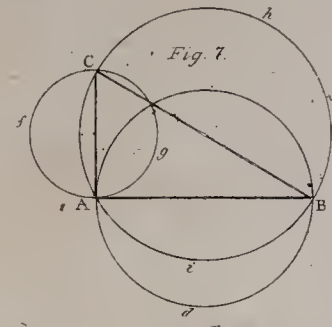
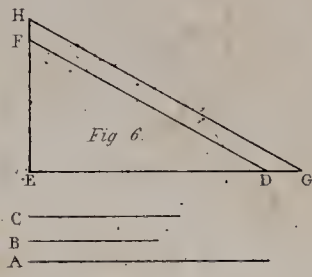
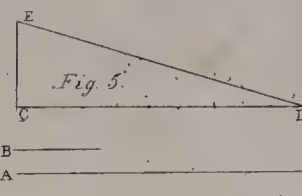
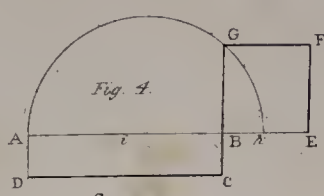
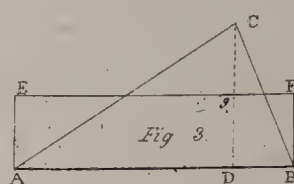
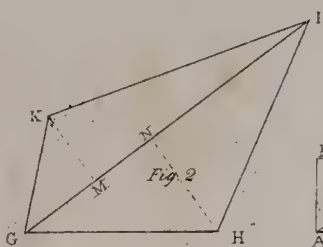
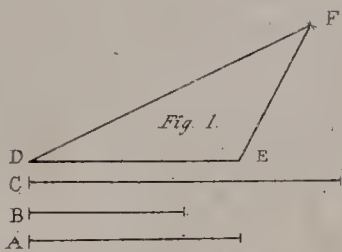
This is no more than a particular case of the last problem.

For a cylindric may be considered as a cone, having its apex at an infinite distance from its base; or practically, at a vast distance from its base, in this case all the lines for a short distance, would differ insensibly from parallel lines; and this is the construction shown at fig. 5, which is therefore evident. But as the section of a cylinder so frequently occurs I shall here give a more practical description of it. Thus:—

Let A B H I (fig. 5) be a section of a right cylinder, passing through its axis, A B being the side which passes through the base, and let D E be the line of section. On A B describe a semi-circle; and in the arc take any number of points a, b, c , &c. from which draw lines perpendicular to the diameter A B, cutting it in Q, R, S, &c.: perpendicular to A B or parallel to A I or B H, draw the lines Q q, R r, S s, &c. cutting the line of sections D E, in the points q, r, s , &c. from the points of section q, r, s , &c. draw the lines $q i, r k, s l$, &c. perpendicular to the line of section, D E, make the ordinates $q i, r k, s l$, &c. each respectively equal to the ordinates Qa, Rb, Sc, &c.; and through the points D, i, k, l , &c. to E draw a curve, which will evidently be the section of the cylinder, as required.

The same may be done in this manner; viz:—Bisect the line of section D E in the point t . Draw $t m$ perpendicular to D E.

Make $t m$ equal to the radius of the circle which forms the end of the cylinder; then with the axis major D E, and the semi-axis minor $t m$ describe a semi-ellipse, which will be the section of the cylinder required.



A DEFINITION.

165. A cuneoid is a solid ending in a straight line, in which, if any point be taken, a perpendicular from that point may be made to coincide with the surface, the end of the cuneoid may be of any form whatever.

The cuneoid which occurs in architecture, has a semi-circular or a semi-elliptical end, parallel to the straight line to which the perpendicular is applied.

PROBLEM XLIV.

166. To find the section of a cuneoid with a semi-circular base the given data being a section through the axis, perpendicular to the vertex or sharp end, and the line of section upon that end.

Let A B C (fig. 6) be the section through the axis perpendicular to the sharp edge, and let D E be the line of section.

This construction is similar to that of finding the section of a cylinder, excepting that instead of drawing parallel lines from the base A B, they are in this figure drawn from the points of section in A B to the point C which is the vertex of the cuneoid: the ordinates Qa, Rb, Sc, &c. being transferred respectively to q, r, k, s, l, &c.; and the curve D, i, k, l, & to E being drawn through the points D, i, k, l, &c. by hand.

CARPENTRY.

Carpentry is the art of applying timber in the construction of buildings. The cutting of the timbers, and adapting them to their various situations so that one of the sides of every timber may be arranged according to some given surface as indicated in the designs of the architect, requires profound skill in geometrical construction.

For this purpose it is necessary, not only to be expert in the common problems generally given in a course of practical geometry, but to have a thorough knowledge of the sections of solids and their coverings. Of these subjects, the first has already been explained in the series of problems given in the geometrical part of this work and I am now about to treat, on the other; that is the method of covering them.

As no line can be formed on the edge of a single piece of timber so as to arrange with a given surface, nor on the intersection of two surfaces, (by workmen called a groin) without a complete understanding of both, the reader is required not to pass them, until the operations are perfectly familiar to his mind.

For the more effectually rivetting the principles upon the mind of the student, it is requested that he should model them as he proceeds and apply the sections and coverings found on the paper to the real sections and surfaces by bending them around the solids.

The surfaces which timbers are required to form are those of cylinders, cylindroids, cones, cuneoids, spheres, ellipsoids, &c. either entire or as terminated by cylinders, cylindroids, cones, and cuneoids.

The formation of Arches, Groins, Niches, Angle brackets, Lunettes, Roofs &c. depend entirely upon their sections or upon their covering or upon both.

This branch of carpentry from its being subjected to Geometrical rules and described in schemes or diagrams upon a floor, sufficiently large for all the parts of the operation has been called *descriptive carpentry*.

In order to prepare the reader's mind for this subject, it will be necessary to point out the figures of the sections, as taken in certain positions.

All the sections of a cylinder, parallel to its base are circles.

All the sections of a cylinder parallel to its axis are parallelograms. And if the axis of the cylinder be perpendicular to its base all these parallelograms will be rectangles. If a cylinder be entirely cut through the curved surface and if the section is not a circle it is an ellipse.

All the sections of a cone parallel to its base are circles; all the sections of a cone passing through its vertex are triangles; all the sections of a cone which pass entirely through the curved surface and which are not circles are ellipses: all the sections of a cone which are parallel to one of its sides, are denominated parabolas, and all the sections of a cone which are parallel to any line within the solid passing through the vertex are denominated hyperbolas.

All the sections of a sphere or globe made plane are circles.

The solid formed by a semi-ellipse revolving upon one of its axis is termed an ellipsoid.

All the sections of an ellipsoid are similar figures: those sections perpendicular to the fixed axis are circles and those parallel thereto are similar to the generating figure.

OF THE COVERINGS OF SOLIDS.

PROBLEM I.

Let A B C D (fig. 7 pl. 6) be the generating section of the frustum.

On B C describe the semi-circle B E C, and produce the sides B A and C D, of the generating section A B C D to meet each other in F.

From the centre F with the radius F A describe the arc A H: and from the same centre F with the radius F B, describe the arc B G; divide the arc B E C of the semicircle into any number of equal parts; the greater the number the more correct will be the result of the operation; repeat the chords of one of those equal arcs, upon the arc B G, as often as the arc B E C contains equal parts; then through G, the extremity of the last part, draw G F, cutting the arc A H at H then will A B G H be the covering required, of the frustum of a right cone.

To find the covering of the frustum of a right cone when cut by two concentric cylindric surfaces, perpendicular to the generating section.

Let A B C D (fig. 7 also) be the given section, and A D, B C, the line on which the cylindric surface stands, (find the arc B G as before described) and

mark the points 1, 2, 3, &c. of division both in the arc B G and in the semi-circumference: from the points 1, 2, 3, &c. draw lines to F; also from the points 1, 2, 3, &c. in the semi-circumference draw lines perpendicular to B C so that each line thus drawn may meet or cut it. From the points of division in B C draw more lines to F, cutting the arc B C in a, b, c, &c. from the points a, b, c, &c. draw lines parallel to B C to cut the side B A from the centre F through each point of section in B A, describe an arc, cutting the lines drawn from each of the points 1, 2, 3, &c. in B G at a, b, c, &c. then will B e G be the curve, which will cover the line B C on the plan, or B C will be the seat of the line B e G.

In the same manner A H the original of the line A D, will be found; and consequently, B e G H A will form the covering over the given seat A B C D as required to be done.

PROBLEM II.

To find the covering of a right cylinder.

Let A B C D (fig. 8 pl. 5) be the seat or generating section.

Produce the sides D A and C B to H and G, and on B C describe a semi-circle and make the straight line B G equal to the semi-circumference; draw G H parallel to A B, and A H parallel to B G, then will A B G H be the covering required.

PROBLEM III.

To find the covering of a right cylinder contained between two parallel planes perpendicular to the generating section (fig. 9. pl. 5.) Through the point B draw I K, perpendicular to A B; and produce D C to K, on B K describe a semi-circle and make B I equal to the length of the arc of the semi-circle by dividing it into equal parts and extending them on the line B I. Through the points of section 1, 2, 3, &c. in the line B I, draw lines 1a, 2b, 3c, &c. parallel to B A, and through the points 1, 2, 3, &c. in the arc of the semi-circle, draw the other lines 1a, 2b, 3c, &c. parallel to B A cutting A D in a, b, c, &c. draw aa, bb, cc, &c. parallel to B K: then through the points a, b, c, &c. draw the curve A H and A H will be the edge of the covering over A D.

In the same manner the other opposite edge B G will be found, and the whole covering will therefore be A B G H.

PROBLEM IV.

A B C D (fig. 10 pl. 5) being the seat of the covering of a semi-cylindric surface, contained between the surface of two other concentric cylinders of which the axis is perpendicular to the given seat; it is required to find the covering.

Through B draw I K, perpendicular to A B; and produce D C to K. On B K describe a semi-circle and divide its circumference into equal parts, at the points 1, 2, 3, &c.; the more of these the truer will be the operation; and repeat the chord on the straight line B I, as often as the arc contains equal parts, and mark the points 1, 2, 3, &c. of division. Through the points 1, 2, 3, &c. in the arc of the semi-circle, draw the lines 1a, 2b, 3c, &c. parallel to B A; and through the points 1, 2, 3, &c. in B I, draw lines 1a, 2b, 3c, &c. parallel B A, Draw aa, bb, cc, &c. parallel to K I, and through all the points a, b, c, &c. draw the curve line A H, which is one of the edges of the covering.

In the same manner the other edge B G will be found; and consequently, the whole covering A B G H.

PROBLEM V.

To find the covering of that portion of a semi-cylinder contained between two concentric surfaces of two other cylinders the axis of these cylinders being perpendicular to ABCD (fig. 11, pl. 5.) Join BC and in this case BC will be perpendicular to AB. Produce C B to G; and on B C describe a semi-circle. Divide the arc of the semi-circle into any number of equal parts, and extend the chords upon the straight line B G marking the points of section both in the semi-circle and in the straight line B G. Through the points 1, 2, 3, &c. in the arc of the semi-circle, draw lines 1a, 2b, 3c, &c. parallel to A B; and through the points 1, 2, 3, &c. in B G, draw the lines 1a, 2b, 3c, &c. parallel to A B; also draw aa, bb, cc, &c. parallel to B G, and, through the points a, b, c, &c. draw a curve, which will form one of the edges of the soffit: the opposite edge is formed in the same manner.

GEOMETRICAL CONSTRUCTION OF HIP ROOFS.

To find the bevels for cutting the various timbers in a hip roof, and the length and backing of the hip rafters.

Let A B C D (fig. 12, pl. 5) be the plan of the building, or the outlines of the wall-plates, A E, B E, and C E, D E, the seats of the hips, draw E A, E B, and E C, E D; the base lines over which the hip rafters are to stand, let P n, m, be the pitch of the roof, and o n the perpendicular height, draw E F at right angles with E A and equal to the height of the perpendicular o n, then draw A F which is the length of the hip rafter, draw h, k, h, at any distance from the angle A and at right angles with A E make k i equal to k r, or from k to the nearest point of the top line of the hip rafters draw h i and i h, which is the backing of the hip rafter required. This method will give the backing of the hip rafter, whether the building be square or bevelling.

To find the bevels of a purlin upon a hip rafter giving the seat of a common rafter, and the seat of the hip rafter, and the angle which the common rafter makes with its seat.

Let A B C D, (figs. 13 and 14) be the outlines of the wall plates A F, D F, and B E, C E, the seats of the hips and E F the seat of the ridge-piece. Place the section-purlin in its real position with respect to the common rafter. Produce that side of the section of the purline, of which the bevel is required, upon

the hip toward the seat; from one extremity of the line thus produced, and, with the length of the said line as a radius, describe a circle. Draw three lines, parallel to the wall-plate, to meet the hip line; viz. one from the centre of the circle, one from the point where the line meets the circle and the third a tangent to the circle. From the point in the seat of the hip-rafter where the middle line meets the said seat draw a line perpendicular to that middle line to meet the tangent; join the point where this perpendicular meets the tangent to the point where the line drawn from the centre meets the seat of the hip-rafter, and the angle formed by the line thus joining, and the line drawn from the centre of the circle will be the bevel of the purlin.

Example, (fig. 13 pl. 5) A F bring the seat of a hip-rafter, I F that of a common rafter and F I L the angle which the common rafter, makes with its seat, and $a b c d$ the section of the purlin. Now suppose it were required to find the bevel of that side of the purlin represented by $a d$. Produce $a d$ to any point, f ; and from a , with the radius $a f$, describe a circle $f g h$, parallel to the adjacent wall-plate, A B draw three lines to cut the seat A F, of the hip; viz. from the centre a draw $a i$ and from the point f , where $a f$ meets the circle draw $f k$, the former cutting the seat in i , and the latter in k . Draw $k l$, perpendicular to $f k$, and draw the tangent $e l$, cutting $k l$ in l ; and join $i l$ then $i l a$ is the angle required.

In the same manner by producing $a b$, we shall find the angle formed upon the end of the side of which its section is $a b$.

In order that the different inclined planes, which form the sides of a roof, should have an equal inclination to the horizon, the seats of the hip-rafters ought to bisect the angles of the wall-plates.

When a roof is wider at one end than at the other as in order as in (fig. 15) to prevent its winding let I K and O P be the seats of the two common rafters, passing through each extremity of the ridge-piece and let the rafters I L and K L be found as before; divide O P into two equal parts, in, E; draw E R perpendicular to O P. Make the angle E P R equal to the angle F K L; then E R will be the height of the roof upon the seat O P.

If this should be objected to, because it makes the ridge higher at one end than at the other, let E (fig. 17) be the end of the seat of the ridge next the narrow end of the roof.

Bisect all the four angles of the roof by the straight lines A F, B E, C E, D F; and through E, draw E G, parallel to A B cutting A F in G; and draw E H parallel to C D, cutting D F in H; and join G H; then G H will be parallel to A D. This is true, because, since all the angles are bisected, if we imagine perpendiculars drawn from E to the three sides, the three straight lines thus drawn will be equal; and because E G is parallel to A B, the perpendiculars drawn from the points E and G, to the straight line A B, are equal; from the same reasons, because E H is parallel to C D, the perpendiculars drawn from the points E and H to the straight line C D, are equal therefore the perpendicular drawn from the point G, to the straight line A B, is equal to the perpendicular drawn from H to the straight line C D.

And, since the angles B A D and C D A are bisected by the straight lines A G and D H, the two perpendiculars, drawn from G to the sides A B and A D, are equal, as also the two perpendiculars from the point H to the sides D A and D C; but the perpendicular drawn from G, to the side A B, is equal to the perpendicular drawn from H to the side C D; therefore the perpendiculars, drawn from points G and H, to the straight line A D, are equal to each other; but when the perpendiculars drawn between two straight lines are equal, these two straight lines are parallel: therefore the straight line G H is parallel to A D.

Whence if all the angles of a roof be bisected, and if any point be taken in any one of the bisecting lines, and if a line be drawn through the point thus assumed, parallel to one of the adjacent sides, to meet the next bisecting line and so on from one to another, till only one line remains to be drawn, then if the point assumed be joined to the point where the parallel meets the last bisecting line the line thus joining will be parallel.

(Fig. 16) is one half of the plan of the roof and the stretch-out of the rafters of (fig. 15)

OF DOMES.

(Fig. 1 pl. 6) is a design for a hemispherical dome, the ribs are constructed of thin boards and small pieces of plank. The principle of this form of roof consist in placing a number of hoops one above the other, and of such sizes as when properly placed, will form the contour of the dome. These hoops are here formed by pieces of plank as represented on the plan of the dome in (fig. 1 no. 2) Near each one of these is a long mortice, the position of these is shown in the section $d d d$ &c. in (fig. 1 no. 1) one of the ribs or rafters is shown in (fig. 1 no. 3) with a mortice in the middle of it long enough to receive the thickness of two hoops, as also may be seen in (fig. 1 no. 4). At each end of these ribs is a sliding mortice of half the length, as represented in the section $c c c$ &c. in (fig. 1 no. 1) when these are to be put together, the wall plate (which should be of two thicknesses of boards, and made to break joint) should be first laid, and then a piece of the rafter, as (fig. 1 no. 3) should be fixed upright in its proper place and secured by a tenon at the lower end, which must go through the plate. It should be observed, that the rafters are of two lengths which should break joint; of course one of the first pieces should be but half the length of No. 4. when one set of the rafters are fixed all round, the pieces which form the hoops or which I shall call the purlins, are fixed in them and secured by wooden keys which are driven, on each side of the rafter, through the mortice. By driving these keys, more or less, the hoop may be lengthened or contracted, so as to bring it to the exact form or contour of the dome. After the first set of purlins are fixed and properly keyed, another set of rafters are placed, and then another set of purlins, until the dome is complete. The figure in the plate, for the sake of making its parts more clear has been drawn considerably out of proportion, the materials being much too large and a much greater number of purlins would be proper. This principle of covering may be extended to a great span, and when the rafters come too close together, at the top every other one may be left out as may be seen in the proceeding figures.

Figures 2 and 3, are so similar constructed to each other, a particular explanation is not required of both. Therefore I shall proceed with fig. 3.

(Fig. 3 No 1. pl. 6) is a design for an ellipsoidal dome, the plan being elliptic, and one of the vertical sections circular. The ribs are constructed without trusses. In order to divide them as equally as possible, a purlin is introduced to support the upper ends of the jack-ribs. As this dome is supposed to rise from an elliptic well hole the timbers are carried below the base, from a, b, c, d, e, f , No. 1 is the elevation No. 2 the plan, showing the upper face of the wall-plates purlin and curb, (fig. 3, No 3, fig. 3, No. 5. fig. 3 No, 7.) are the entire ribs, to be placed upon A, C, E, in the plan, and (fig. 3 No. 4 fig. 3, No. 6. fig. 3 No. 3) are the jack-ribs to be placed upon B, D, F, on the plan the upper ends of all the ribs terminate upon the curb, or upon the purlin, with a sally, or birds mouth, which is the usual method of fitting them (fig. 2 No 1) Is a design for an hemispherical dome, constructed in the same manner as the elliptic dome fig. 3.

In large roofs constructed of a dome form, without trussing the ribs may be made in two or more thicknesses, in such a manner that the common abutment of every two pieces, in the same ring may fall as distant as possible from the abutment of any other two pieces, in a different ring. The number of purlins must depend upon the diameter of the dome.

To find the form of the boards for an ellipsoidal dome, the plan being an ellipse, and the vertical section upon the axis-minor a semi-circle; so that the joints of the boards may be in planes passing through the axis-major of the plan.

Let A B C D, (fig. 4 No. 1. pl. 6) be the plan of the dome, A C the axis major and D B the axis-minor; E the centre. From E, with the distance E D, or E B describe the semi-circle B F D. Divide the arc into such a number of equal parts, that one of them may be equal to the breadth of a board, and let the points of division be at 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. draw the lines 1a, 2b, 3c, 4d, perpendicular to B D, cutting B D at the points a, b, c, d . Then upon A C, as an axis-major, and upon E a, E b, E c, E d, as so many axis-minors, describe the semi-ellipse A a C, A b C, A c C, A d C, which will represent the joints of the boards upon one side of the dome. Now since all the sections of this dome, through the line A C are identical figures, the vertical section upon the line A C, will be identical to the half plan A B C or A D C. Divide, therefore, B A into any number of equal parts, by the points of division, e, f, g, h, i, k, l ; the more correct will be the operation. Draw the straight lines $em, fn, go, hp, iq, kr, ls$, perpendicular to A C, cutting A C at the points m, n, o, p, q, r, s , and the semi-ellipse A d C, in the points t, u, v, w, x, y, z , on the straight lines G H, (fig. 4 No. 2) set off the equal parts $Em, mn, no, &c.$ from each side of the centre E each equal to one of the equal parts $Be, ef, fg, &c.$ in the semi-elliptic curve, A B C, in the plan No. 1.

Through the points $m, n, o, p, &c.$, No. 2, draw $tu, uv, &c.$ perpendicular to G H. Make mt, mt , each equal to mt , in the plan No. 1, and nu, nu , No. 2, each equal to nu , in the plan No. 1; then through all the points $t, u, v, &c.$ draw a curve on each side of the line A C, to reach from A to C, and each curve will be the edge of a board. If the work be large it would be well to tack in nails at the several points and bend a slip around to describe the curve.

(Fig. 4, No. 3) show the longitudinal elevation: viz: on the line A C of the plan.

(Fig. 4, No. 4) exhibits the transverse elevation, the contour being identical to that of the section on the line A B.

To find the covering for a sphere or globe which is supposed to be divided into four parts or quarters.

Let A C B D (fig. 5, pl. 6) be the circumference, and A B and C D the diameters which divide the circle, into four quadrants; divide the arc A C into a like number of equal parts, (six in this example) draw E G through the arc at L, and take the six divisions from the arc A C and set them off from E to F on the line E G, produce the same number of parts from F to G, draw F M and F N at right angles with E G; take three of the divisions from the arc A G, and set them off from F to I, and from F to H, on the line M N, on M as a centre describe the arc E H G, cutting the point in H, on N as a centre describe the arc E I G, cutting the point in I.

Then will E I G H be one quarter of the covering required.

METHODS OF BOARDING CIRCULAR ROOFS.

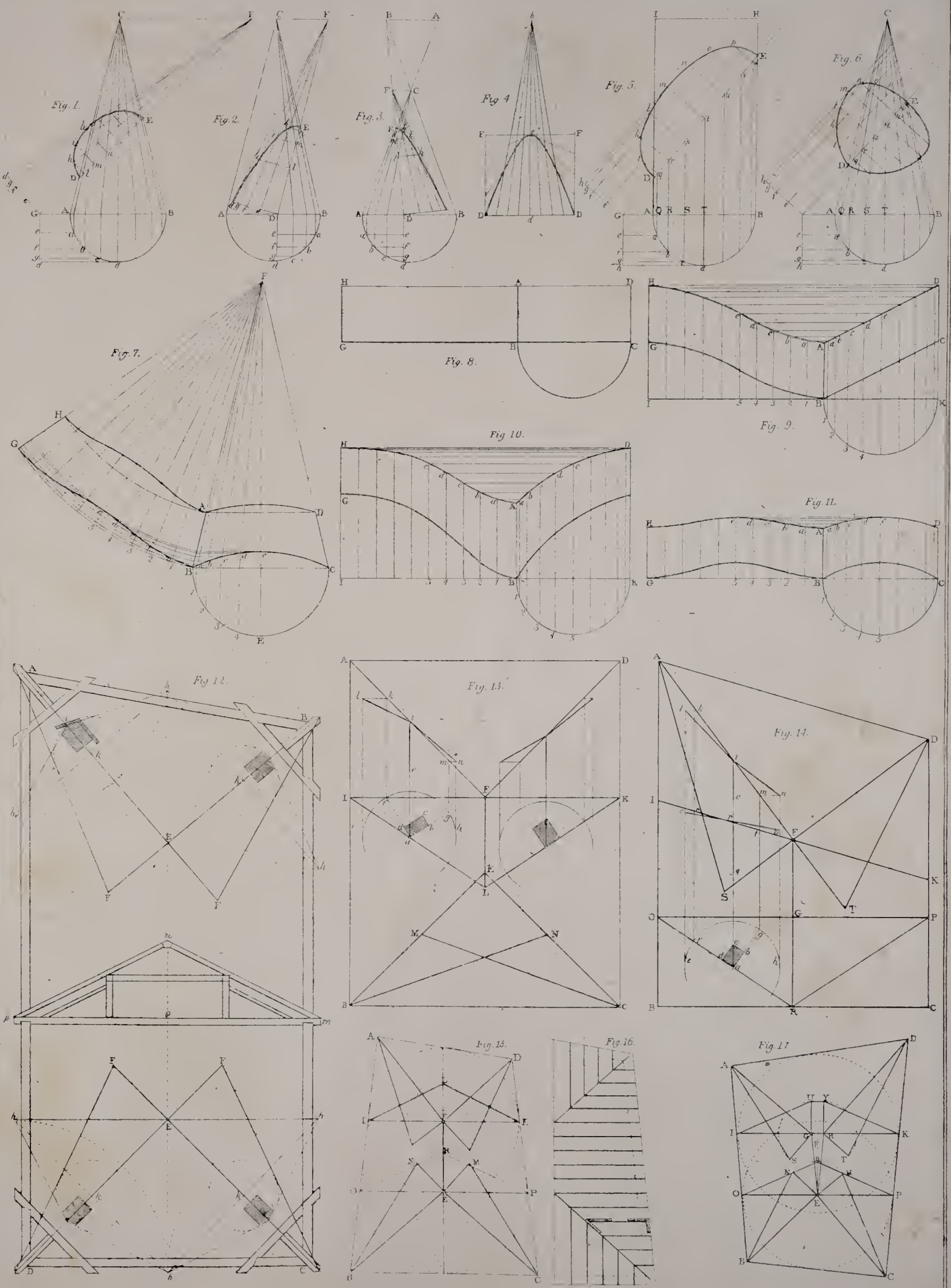
With regard to boarding of roofs for slates there are two methods.

In the first place; if a round solid be cut by two planes, each parallel to the base, the portion of the surface of the solid, between these planes, will nearly coincide with a conic surface, contained between sections perpendicular to the axis of the cone of the same diameter each as those made by cutting the round solid; therefore the whole of the round solid may be looked upon as so many conic frustums, laying one upon another; therefore to cover all the conic frustums is to cover the round solid.

The other method of covering a round solid is to suppose the base divided into equal parts and the solid to be cut by planes passing through the points of division, and through the fixed axis; then the surface of the body will be divided into as many equal and similar parts: so that if any one of these portions of the solid be covered, the cover will of course fit any other portion thus divided; and as all the horizontal sections of each portion of the solid is the sector of a circle, the chords of all the sectors will be parallel to each other; therefore the curved surface will be nearly prismatic. This therefore affords another method of forming the boarding.

The first of these methods is called the horizontal method and the second the vertical method of covering a dome.

Let A B C (fig. 6 pl. 6) be a vertical section of a circular dome, through its axis and let it be required to cover the dome horizontally; bisect the base A C, in the point H, and draw H I perpendicular to A C cutting the semi-circumference in B, divide the arc B C into such a number of equal parts that each part may be less than the breadth of a board; that is to say, allowing the boards to be of a certain length, each part may be of the proper width, allowing for waste. Then if, between the points of division, we suppose the small arcs to be straight lines, as



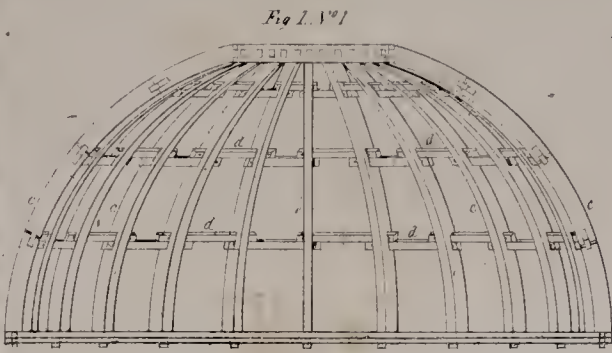


Fig. 2. N°1.

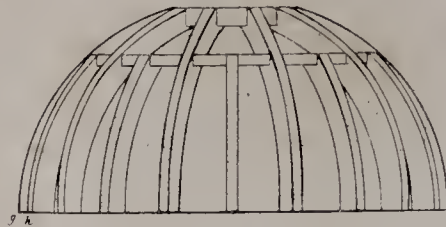


Fig. 3. N°1.

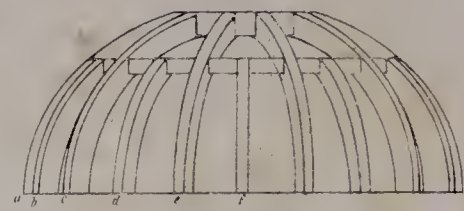


Fig. 2. N°2.

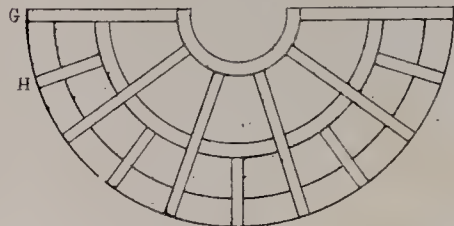


Fig. 3. N°2.

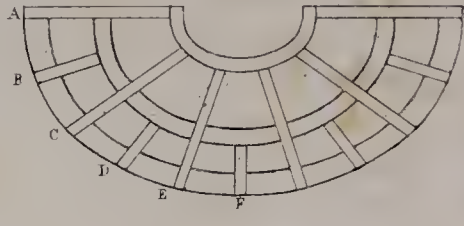


Fig. 1. N°2.

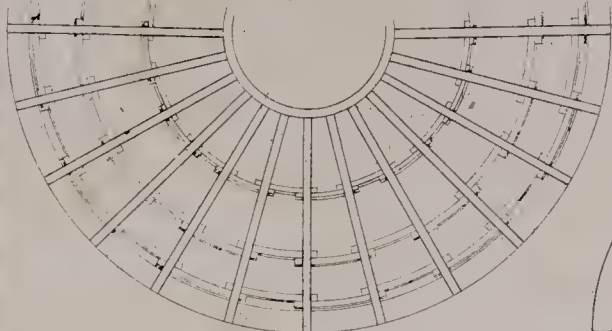


Fig. 2. N°4.

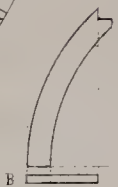


Fig. 2. N°3.

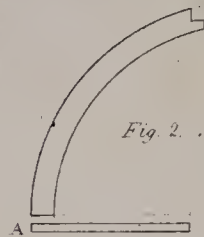


Fig. 3. N°4.



Fig. 3. N°3.

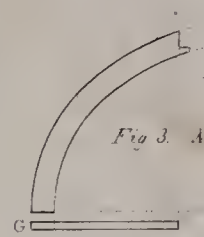


Fig. 1. N°3.

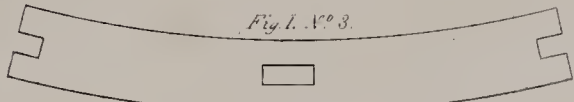


Fig. 3. N°8.



Fig. 3. N°7.

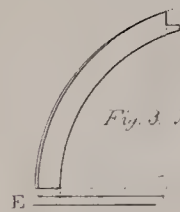


Fig. 3. N°6.



Fig. 3. N°5.

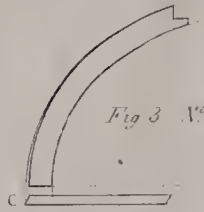


Fig. 1. N°4.

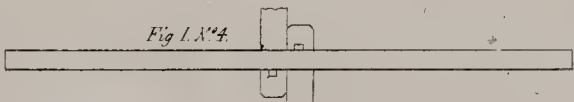


Fig. 4. N°3.

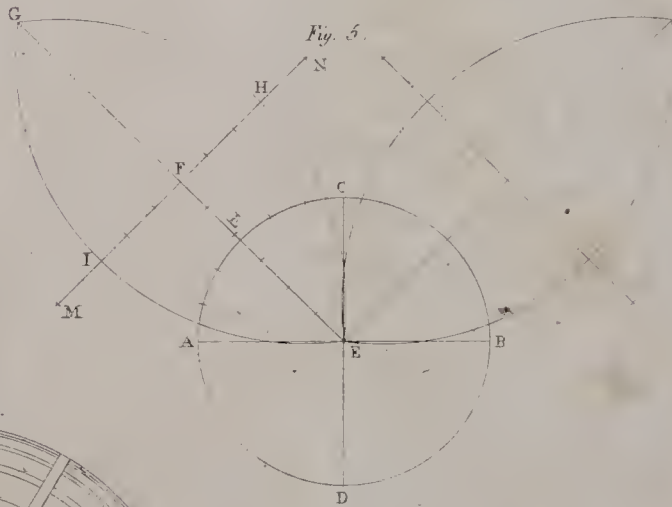
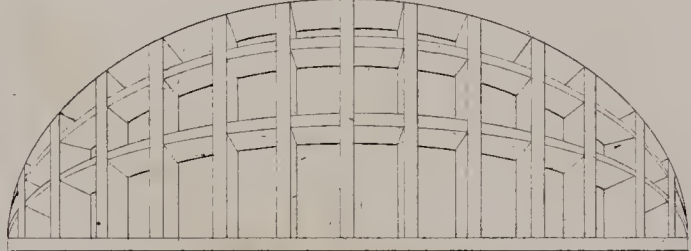


Fig. 4. N°1.

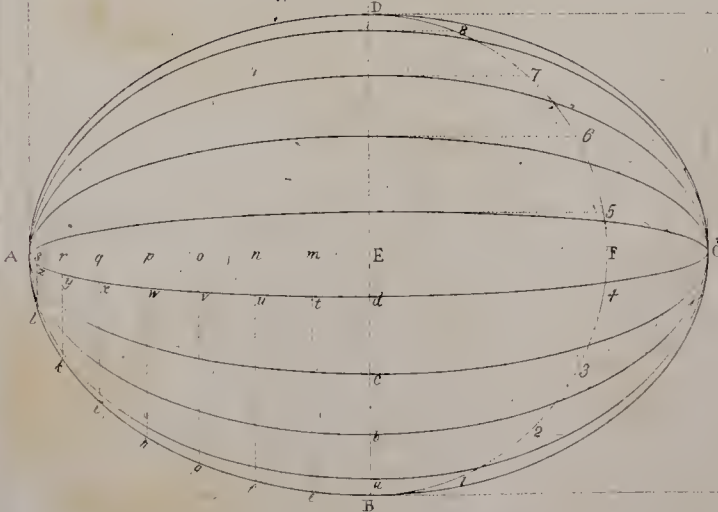


Fig. 4. N°4.

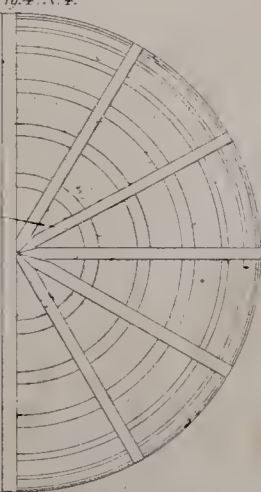


Fig. 4. N°2.

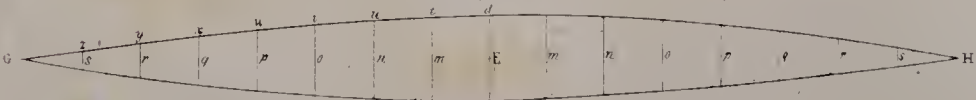
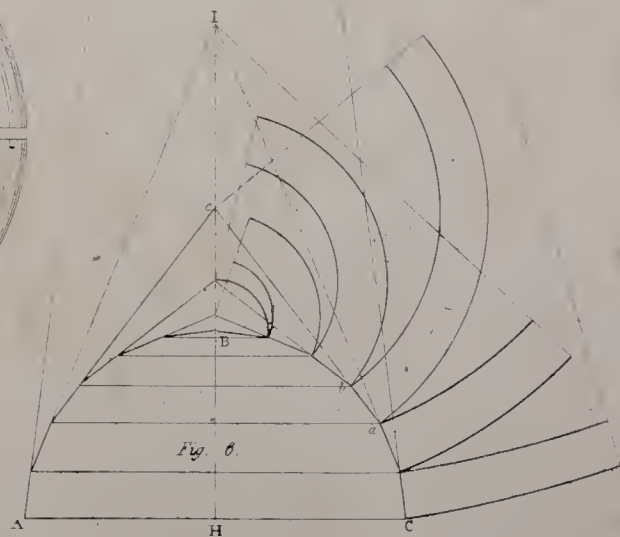


Fig. 6.



they will differ very little from them, and if horizontal lines bc drawn through the points of division to meet the opposite side of the circumference the trapezoids will be the sections of so many frustums of a cone and the straight line HI will be the common axis for every one of these frustums.

Now, therefore, to describe any board, which shall correspond to the surface of which one of these parts, ab , is the section, produce ab to meet HI in c ; then with the radii cb , ca , describe two arcs; then radiating the end to the centre the lines thus drawn will form the board required.

In the same manner any other board may be found; as is evident from the principle described.

This kind of work should be described out on a floor or some other extensive plane; by so doing you can draw all your moulds and cut the joints, both for the frame and the covering before it is erected. In case the dome should be so large that it cannot be described on a floor, take a thin board of suitable length for the first course of boarding, bend it around on the plain of the rafters and scribe it down to the base line of the dome, when it is well fitted, gauge it to a width and this will make you a pattern to mark out the remainder of the first course and for the second course take the upper edge of the pattern of the lower course to mark out the lower edge of the second course, when this is done gauge it to a width; and for the third course, proceed in the like manner and so on until the roof is completed.

To find the forms of the boards for covering an annular vault.

Let AD (fig. 1, pl. 7) be the outer diameter of the annulus, CG the inner, E the centre, and AC the thickness of the ring.

On AC describe the semicircle ABC : then if ABC be supposed to be set perpendicular to the plane of the paper, it will represent half the section of the ring. From E with the radius EA , describe the semi-circle AFD ; and from the same centre E , with the radius EC , describe the semi-circle CHG ; then AFD is the outer circumference and CHG is the inner circumference; and consequently $AFDGHCA$ is the section of the ring, perpendicular to the fixed axis; and the section ABC of the solid itself is perpendicular to the section $AFDGHCA$.

To find the form of any board; divide the circumference ABC of the semi-circle into such a number of equal parts as the boards or planks out of which they are to be cut will admit.

Let ab be the distance between two adjacent points; through the centre E draw HI perpendicular to AD : and through the points a and b , draw the straight line ac , meeting HI in the point c ; from c , with the radius ca , describe an arc; and from the same centre, c , with the radius cb , describe another arc, and inclose the space by a radiating line at each end; and the figure bounded by the two arcs, and the radiating line will be the form of the board required.

In the same manner the form of every remaining board may be found. It is obvious that, as common boards are not more than from ten to twelve inches in breadth, the boards formed for the covering cannot be long, if so they will produce much waste.

To cover an ellipsoidal dome the major-axis of the generating ellipse being the fixed axis.

Let ABC (fig. 2, pl. 7) be the section through the fixed axis or generating ellipse which will also be the vertical section of such a solid. Produce the fixed axis AC to I , and divide the curve ABC into such a number of equal parts that each may be equal to the proper width of a board. Then as before, draw a straight line through two adjacent points a and b , to meet the line AI in c ; then with the radii ca and cb , describe arcs and terminate the board at its proper length.

(Fig. 2 No. 2) is an horizontal section of the dome, exhibiting the plan of the boarding.

(Fig. 3 pl. 7) is a section of a circular roof. The principle of covering it with boards bent horizontally, is exactly the same as in the preceding examples.

It is now necessary only to explain one general principle which extends to the whole of these round solids. The planes which contain the conic frustums are all perpendicular to the fixed axis, which is represented by HI in all the figures. Produce ab to meet the fixed axis HI in c ; then with the radius ca , describe an arc, which two arcs will form the edges of the board, the ends are formed by radiating lines.

Either of these figures which we inspect we shall find this rule to apply as the boards approach nearer to the revolving axis; they may be made either wider or longer but as the boards approach near to the fixed axis the waste will be greater, and consequently, the boards must be shorter, when the boards come very near to the bottom of the dome, the centre, for describing the edges of the boards will be too remote for the length of a rod to be used as a radius.

In this case we may have recourse to the following method.

Let ABC (fig. 7, pl. 7) be the section of the dome as before, and let e be the point in the middle of the breadth of a board: draw ed parallel to AC , the base of the section, cutting the axis of the dome in g , and join Ae , cutting the axis in f . (Then by *Problem 7 Geometry*) describe the segment of a circle through the three points d , f , e , and this will give the curve of the edge of the board as required.

(Fig. 7. No 2) exhibits the manner of using the instrument, (this instrument is also described in *problem 17 geometry*) Thus suppose we make DE equal to de , fig. 7 No 1; Bisect DE in G and draw GF perpendicular to DE and make GF equal to gf , in (fig. 7 No. 1) draw FH parallel to DE and make FH equal to FE , and join $E H$: then cut a piece of board into the form of the triangle HFE ; then let HFE be that triangle; then move the vertex F from F to E keeping the leg FE upon the point E ; and the leg F ; and the angular point F of the piece so cut, will describe the curve, or perhaps as much of it as may be wanted.

It must be here observed that the line described is the middle of the board; but if the breadth of the board is properly marked off at each end, on each side of the middle, we shall be able to describe the arc with the same triangle, or if the concave edge of the board is hollowed out the convex edge will be found by gauging the board off to its breadth.

As all the conic sections approach nearer and nearer to circles, as they are taken nearer to the vertex, so a parabola whose abscissa is small, compared to its double ordinate will have its curvature nearly uniform, and will, consequently coincide very nearly with the segment of a circle and as this curve is easily described I shall employ it here instead of a circular arc as in No. 3 and 4.

Draw the chord DE as before, and bisect it in G . Draw GF perpendicular to DE and make GF equal to gf , in No 1; so far the construction of the diagrams, No. 3 and 4 are the same, but in what follows they are different, therefore I shall speak of each separately—No. 3.

Divide each half, DG , GE , into the same number of equal parts; and, through the points of division draw lines perpendicular to DE ; also from the points D and E at the extremities, draw perpendiculars; and make each of these perpendiculars equal to GF then divide each into as many equal parts as DG or GE is divided into, and, through the points of division draw lines to F , intersecting the perpendiculars, and through the points of intersection, draw a curve on each side of the middle point F , and this will be the form of the edge of the board nearly.

In No 4 make FH equal to gf , No. 1, and join DH and HE . Then divide DH and HE each into the same number of equal parts, then, through the corresponding points of division draw straight lines and the intersection of all the lines will form the curve sufficiently near for the purpose. The lines thus drawn being tangents to the parabolic curve.

The preceding method of covering round solids requires all the boards to be of different curvatures, and continually quicker as they approach nearer to the crown; but by the following method of covering a dome, with the joints in vertical planes, when the form of one of the moulders is obtained this form will serve for moulding the whole solid. The waste of stuff in this case is not less than in the other.

The method which I am about to explain is not only useful in the formation of the boards of a dome but in the covering of niches.

In (Figs. 4, 5, and 6 pl. 7) No. 1 is the plan, No. 2 the elevation; the counter of the latter being a vertical section passing through the axis. Fig. 4 is a dome which represents a round body of which the vertical section is an ogee or a curve of contrary flexure, to (Figs. 5 and 6) Fig. 5 represents a dome whose counter is a semi-circle, fig. 6 represents a segmental dome;

I shall proceed first with (figs. 5 and 6.) Through the centre of the plan G , draw the diameter AC ; and the diameter BD , at right angles to AC ; and produce BD to E . Let BD figs. 5 and 6 be the base of the semi-section of the dome on BD apply the semi-section CFD ; and as the dome represented by fig. 5, is semi-circular, the point F will coincide with the point A in the circumference of the plan. In fig. 5 and 6 divide the curve FD , of the rib into any number of equal parts, and extend the curve DF upon the straight line DE , from D to E ; that is, make the straight line DE , equal in length to the curve DF . Through the points of division, in the curve DA , draw lines perpendicular to DG , cutting it at the points a , b , c , then, extending the parts of the arc between the points of division upon the line DE , from D to 1, from 1 to 2, from 2 to 3 &c. make Dd equal to half the breadth of a board, and join dG ; produce the lines $1a$, $2b$, $3c$, &c. draw through the curve DF to meet the line dG in the points d , e , f , &c. Through the points 1, 2, 3, &c. in DE , draw perpendiculars $1g$, $2h$, $3i$, &c. make $1g$, $2h$, $3i$, &c. respectively equal to ad , be , cf , &c. and through the points d , g , h , i , &c. E draw a curve, which will form one edge of the board, the other edge being similar, we have only to describe a curve equal and similar, so as to have all its ordinates respectively equal from the same straight line DE .

In fig. 4, the form of the mould for the boards is found in a similar manner except that the curve DE is one side of the elevation, No. 2; Lines are drawn from the points of division in DE perpendicular to the diameter AC which is parallel to the base of No. 2 and the points of division are transferred from the radius GC to the radius GD which is the base of the section. The remaining part of the process is the same as in figs. 5 and 6.

In Fig. 5 the curved edge of the board is a symmetrical figure of the sines; the curves of the mould, fig. 6 is a smaller portion of the figure of the same curve and in fig. 4 the mould is a curve of contrary flexure; and if the curve DE be composed of two arcs of circles, the curve of the edges of the mould for the boards will still be compounded of the figure of the sines set on contrary sides; and if the curve DE be compounded of two elliptic segments, the edge of the mould for the formation of the boards will still be of the same species of curve; viz. the figure of the sines.

This figure occurs very frequently in the geometry of building.

COVERINGS OF POLYGONAL ROOFS.

The plans of these roofs are here supposed to be regular polygons, and all the sections parallel to the base, similar to the base and consequently similar to one another.

They are made of prismatic solids meeting each other in planes perpendicular to the plane of the base; and these mitre-planes meet each other in one common axis, which passes through the centre of each polygon.

In (pl. 7, fig. 8.) the plan is denoted by the letters $ABCDEF A$. Then the centre of the polygon being the point I , draw the lines AI , BI , CI , &c. Bisect any of the sides as AB , in the point L , and draw LI , then LI is perpendicular to AB .

Produce the line LI to M and let ILN be the section applied upon LI . In the curve LN take any number of points 1, 2, 3, at equal distances, and transfer these distances, to the line LM , so that LM may be equal to the arc LN . Through the points 1, 2, 3, &c. in LM , draw lines $1g$, $2h$, $3i$, &c. parallel to, AB ; and through the points 1, 2, 3, &c. in the arc LN , draw lines $1d$, $2e$, $3f$, &c. also parallel to AB , cutting LI at the points a , b , c , &c. and BI at the points d , e , f , &c. Make $1g$, equal to $a d$, $2h$, equal to $b c$, $3i$ equal to $c f$, &c. Through the points g , h , i , &c. draw a curve, which will be the edge of the joint over the mitre.

To find the angle-rib through the points d , e , f , &c. draw dk , el , fm , &c. per-

pendicular to B I. Make $dk, el, fm, &c.$ respectively equal to $a1, b2, c3, &c.$ through the points $k, l, m, &c.$ draw a curve which will be the edge of the angle-rib as required.

Fig. 9 exhibits the method of framing the ribs for such kinds of roofs.

Fig. 10. shows the manner of describing the covering and ribs of a domical roof.

Fig. 11 shows the manner of describing the covering and ribs of a roof whose vertical section is a figure of contrary curvature.

Fig. 12 exhibits the manner of forming one of the ribs for an ogee roof, or that of a contrary curvature.

GROINS AND ARCHES.

Groins are the intersections of the surfaces of two arches crossing each other.

CONSTRUCTION OF GROINED ARCHES.

Groined Arches may be either formed of wood and lathed for plastering, or be constructed of brick or stone.

When constructed of brick or stone, they require to be supported upon wooden frames, boarded over so as to form the convex surface, which each vault is required to have, in order to sustain the cross arches during the time of turning them. This construction is called a centre and is removed when the work is finished. The framing consists of equi-distant ribs fixed in parallel planes perpendicular to the axis of each body; so that when the undersides of the boards are laid on the upper edges of the ribs, and fixed, the upper sides of the boards will form the surface required to build upon.

In the construction of the centering for groins one portion of the centre must be completely formed to the surface of its corresponding vault, without any regard to the cross arches, so that the upper sides of the boards will form a complete cylindric or cylindroidic surface. The ribs of cross vaults are then set at the same equal distances as that now described: and parts of the ribs are fixed on the top of the boarding at the same distances and boarded in; so as to intersect the other, and from the entire surface of the groin required.

Groins constructed of wood in place of brick or stone, and lathed under the ribs, and the lath covered with plaster, are called plaster groins.

Plaster groins are always constructed with diagonal ribs intersecting each other, then other ribs are fixed perpendicular to each axis, in vertical planes at equal distances, with short portions of ribs upon the diagonal ribs; so that when lathed over, the lathed angle may be equally solid to sustain the plaster.

When the axis and the surface of a semi-cylinder cuts those of another of greater diameter, the hollow surface of the lesser cylinder, as terminated by the greater is called a cylindro-cylindric arch, and vulgarly a Welsh groin.

Cylindro-cylindric Arches or Welsh groins, are constructed either of brick, stone or wood. If constructed of brick or stone, they require to have centres which are required to be formed in the same manner, as those for groins; and if constructed of wood, lath and plaster the ribs must be formed to the surfaces.

In the construction of groins, and of cylindro-cylindric arches, the ribs that are shorter than the whole width are termed jack ribs.

Cellars are frequently groined with brick or stone, and sometimes all the rooms of the basement stories of buildings in order to render their superstructure proof against fire, the surfaces of brick or stone on which the first arch stones or course of bricks, are placed, are called the springing of the arches. It is evident that the more weight put on the side walls which sustain arches, the more will they be able to sustain the pressure of the arches; therefore the higher a wall is, the greater the weight will be on each of the side walls; and for this reason groins are often constructed with wood in upper stories, instead of brick or stone as not being liable to thrust out the walls, or bulge them by the lateral pressure of the arches. The upper stories of buildings are never groined with stone or brick, unless when the walls are sufficiently thick to sustain the lateral pressure of the arches.

The ceilings of Gothic buildings were frequently constructed with groined arches of stone, which are obliged to be supported with buttresses, at the springing points of the arches.*

GROINS AND ARCHES.

Given the plan of a rectangular groined arch or vault, of which the openings are of different widths, but of the same height and a section of one of the arches, as also the seats of the groins to find the covering of both arches so as to meet their intersection.

Let AAA &c. (fig. 1, No. 1, pl. 8) be the plan of the piers and ab, cd , the seats of the groins.†

Let the section of the arch standing upon the lesser opening, B C, be a semi-circle; it is required to find the section upon the greater opening and the ends of boards, so as to meet the groin, or line of intersection, of the two surfaces.

On the diameter B C describe a semi-circle, and divide the quadrant into any number of equal parts $ef, fg, gh, &c.$ and from the points $e, f, g, &c.$ draw the line parallel to the axis Fk , to meet the seat ab of the groined line, or line of intersection of the two surfaces. From the points $k, l, m, &c.$ of intersection, draw the lines $kQ, lR, mS, &c.$ parallel to the axis of the other vault, to meet the line VQ, perpendicular to that other axis in the points Q, R, S, &c. Then upon any line D E transfer the points Q, R, S, &c. to $q, r, s, &c.$ and draw $qv, rw, sx, &c.$ perpendicular to D E and transfer the ordinates F e , G f , H g , &c. of the semi-cir-

cle, to $qv, rw, sx, &c.$ and through the points $v, w, x, &c.$ draw a curve; then q, v, E will be half the section required.

To find the covering of the semi-cylinder. Upon any straight line YZ, No. 2, set off the distances $lm, mn, no, &c.$ each equal to the chord ef or $fg, &c.$ in No. 1; and draw $lK, mL, nM, &c.$ in No. 2, perpendicular to YZ. Make $lK, mL, nM, &c.$ in No. 2, equal to $Lk, Ml, Nm, &c.$ of No. 1, and through the points, K, L, M, &c. No. 2, draw a curve. Then will the figure KlZ be half the covering of the cylinder.

To construct the covering, No. 3, for the great opening.

In the straight line vg , No. 3 make $vu, ut, ts, &c.$ equal to the parts. $Ez, zy, yx, &c.$ of the elliptic curve No. 1. In No. 3 draw $vB, uO, tN, sM, &c.$ and make $vB, uO, tN, sM, &c.$ No. 3 equal $Vb, Uo, Tn, Sm, &c.$ No. 1; and in No. 3 draw a curve through the points B, O, N, M &c; then $qvBKq$ will be the covering required.

To find the groin of a cylindro-cylindric arch.

Let AAAA (fig. 2 pl. 8) be the plans of four piers which from the opening of different widths. On the lesser opening P M as a diameter, describe a semi-circle. Divide the quadrant next to P into any number of equal parts, and through the points of section draw the lines 1G, 2H, 3I, &c. perpendicular to P M, cutting P M in B, C, D, &c. and through the same points 1, 2, 3, &c. draw the lines $1a, 2b, 3c, &c.$ parallel to P M, cutting a line qe perpendicular to P M, in the points $a, b, c, &c.$ produce the line which contains the points $a, b, c, &c.$ through the greater opening; and upon the part of the line thus produced, which is intercepted between the piers A, A, describe a semi-circle.

Produce the line M P to k and from q describe arcs $af, bg, ch, &c.$ cutting B k in the points $f, g, h, &c.$ draw $fk, gl, hm, &c.$ parallel to the base of the greater semi-circle to cut the arc of the same in the points $k, l, m, &c.$ From the points $k, l, m, &c.$ draw the lines $kG, lH, mI, &c.$ parallel to P M; then through the points G, H, I, K, L, draw a curve, G, H, I, K, L, which will be the seat of the groin.

To find the diagonal or groin-ribs of a vault, of which the lesser openings are semi-circles, and the groins in vertical planes passing through the diagonals of the piers.

On ah , (fig. 3, pl. 8) the perpendicular distances between two adjacent piers of the lesser opening describe a semi-circle abh ; and in the arc take 1, 2, 3, &c. any number of points and draw the lines $1l, 2m, 3n, &c.$ cutting the diagonal ik in $l, m, n, &c.$ Draw as before $lq, mr, ns, &c.$ perpendicular to ik and through the points $i, q, r, s, &c.$ draw a curve; then iuk will be the edge of the rib to be placed in the groin.

The edge of the ribs for the other opening, will be found thus; From the points $l, m, n, &c.$ draw the lines $lI, mK, nL, &c.$ parallel to the axis of the opening of the larger body cutting H B at the points C, D, E, &c. Make C I, D K, E L, &c. each equal to $e1, d2, c3, &c.$ then through the points B I, K L, &c. draw a curve; and the line thus drawn will be in the surface of the greater opening, so that B N H will be one of the ribs of the body-range.

The method of placing the ribs is, exhibited at the lower end of the diagram, fig. 3; the ribs of each opening being placed perpendicular to the axis of each groin.

To draw the arches of groins whether right or rampant so that their arches will intersect or mitre together as in (figs. 4, 5, and 6.) Fig. 4 is the plan of a rectangular groined arch or vault of which the openings are of different widths but of the same height.

This form is called the Gothic or pointed arch.

The section of the arch being given standing upon the lesser opening abh , and ad being divided off into a like number of equal parts as in Fig. 3, you can proceed to find the ribs for the wider opening as in the former examples.

A rampant arch one of which (see fig. 5) the abutments or seats rises from an inclined plane.

This form of a groined arch is frequently met with in the ceilings of the under sides of galleries in Gothic churches.

It is but seldom the ceilings of galleries run horizontally for they are generally raised up from the base line on the outer wall for the sake of clearing the tops of the lower range of windows or that more light may be produced.

To find the diagonal ribs of a vault as in (fig. 5) suppose jh and jk to be the base or horizontal lines, and a, h , and i, n the seats of the groins, draw ja and ji at right angles with jh and jk and make ji equal in height to ja draw the diagonals ah and ih , (the arch in the lesser opening being described as in fig. 27) divide the arc ab into a like number of equal parts (as above described) draw lines from the points 1, 2, 3, &c. through c, d, e , parallel to ai until they intersect the diagonal line ik , then in the wider opening draw lines through $l, m, n, &c.$ parallel to ij , and transfer the ordinates $1c, 2d, 3e, &c.$ in the lesser opening to $lq, mr, ns, &c.$ in the wider opening, and through the points $q, r, s, &c.$ draw the curve, then will i, p, u be half of the section required.

On the remaining part of the plate are a number of examples of the Gothic or pointed arch, as designed and described in the works of A. Pugin.

7. The semi-circular Arch was the principal one used in all buildings until about the middle of the 12th, century, though a solitary instance of the pointed Arch may now and then be proved to be of earlier construction.

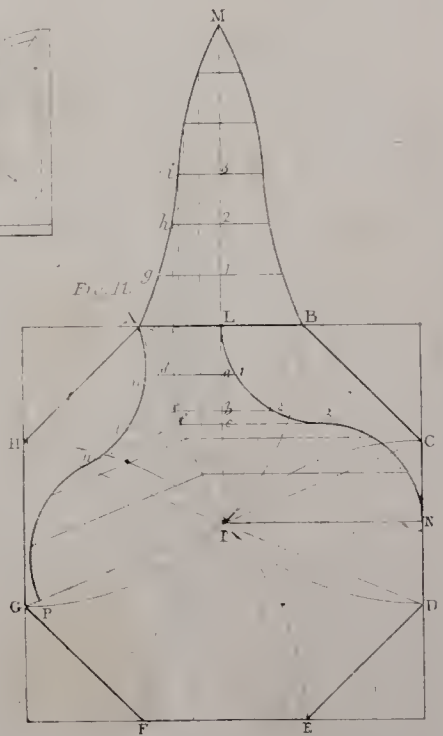
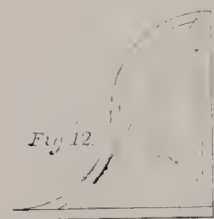
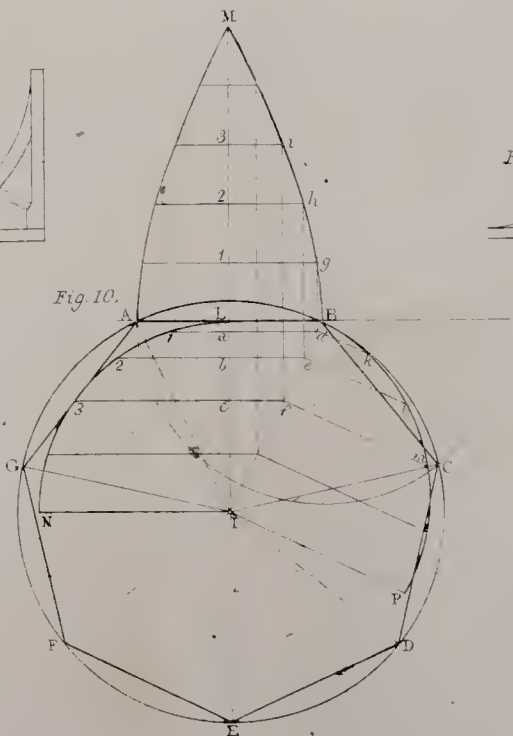
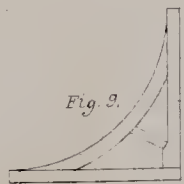
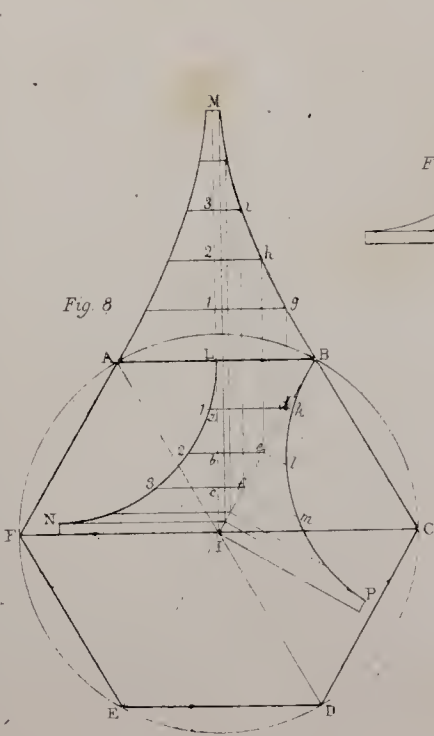
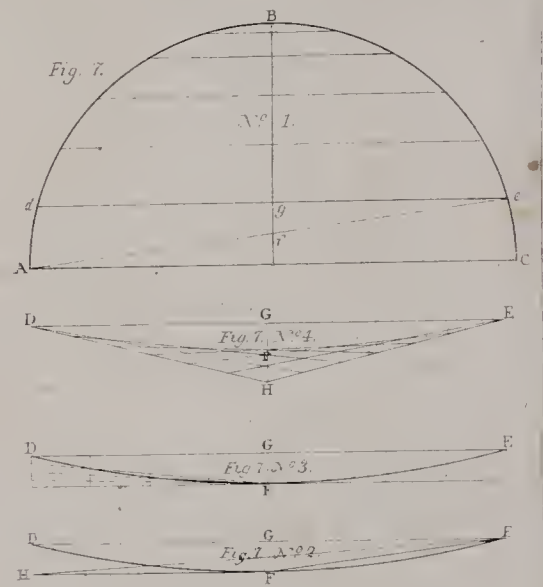
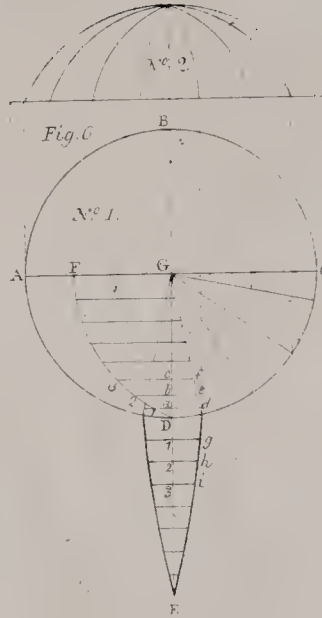
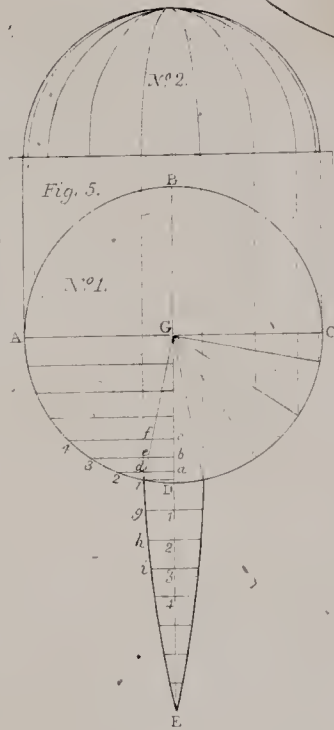
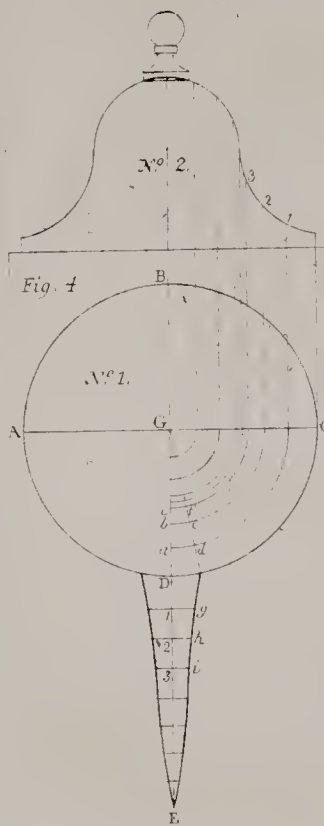
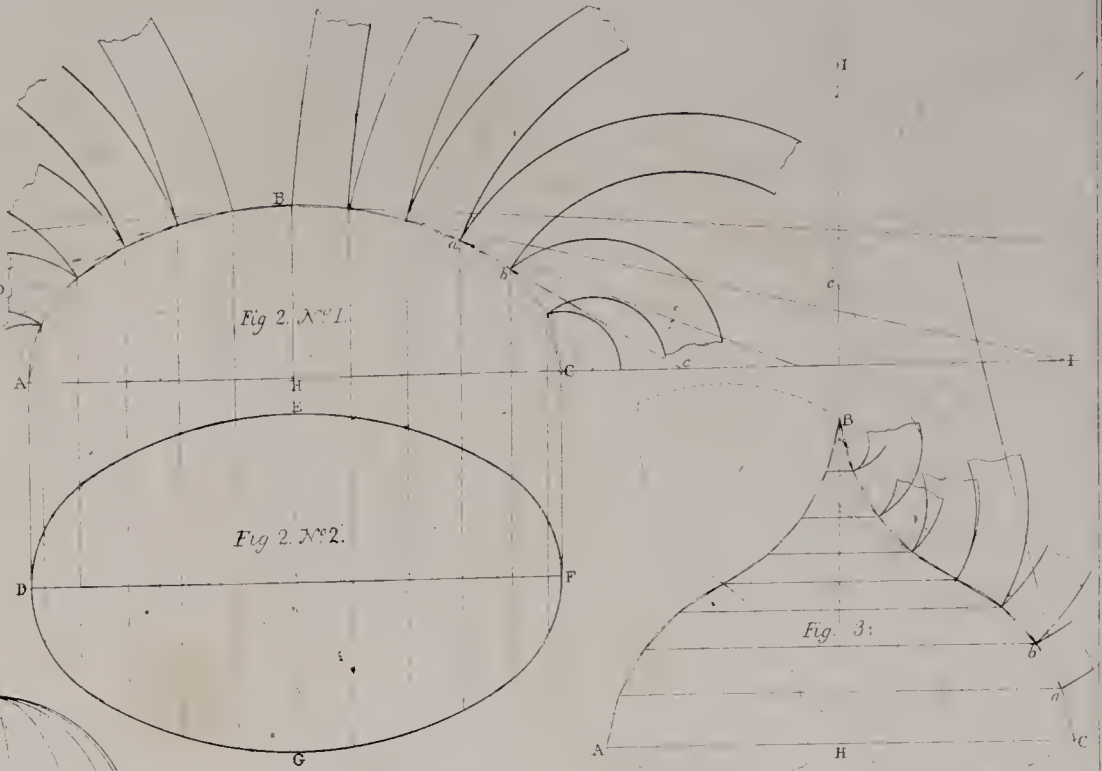
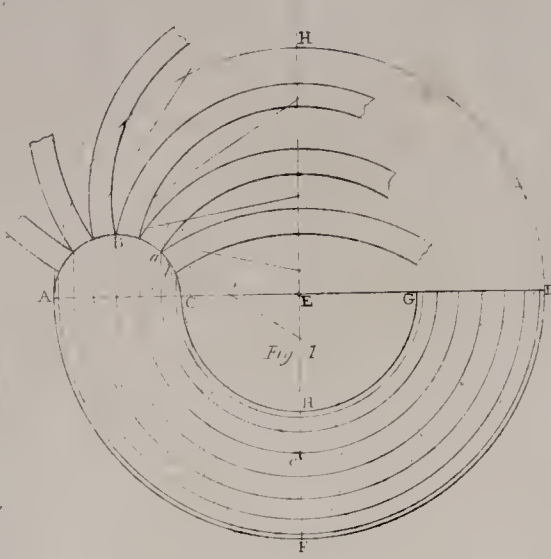
8. Arch described from one centre placed above the base line.—This form has been denominated the horse shoe, it is common in some buildings of eastern countries.

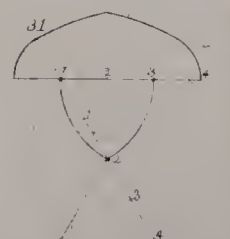
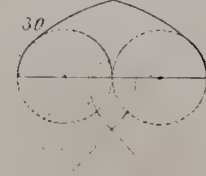
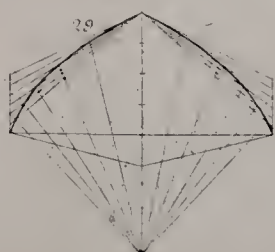
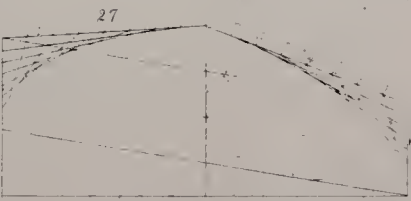
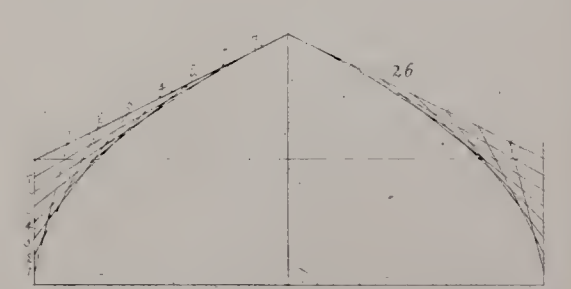
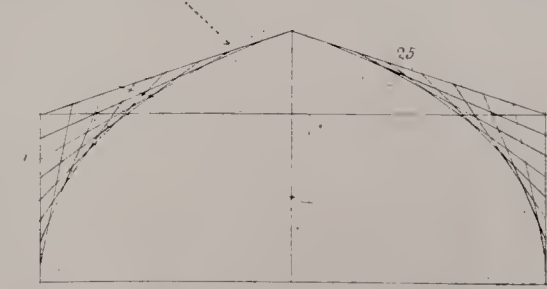
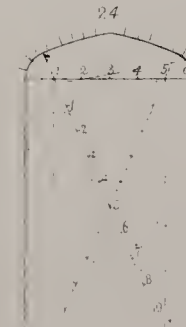
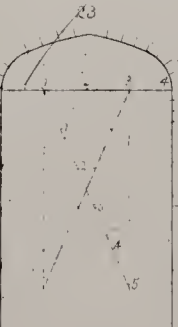
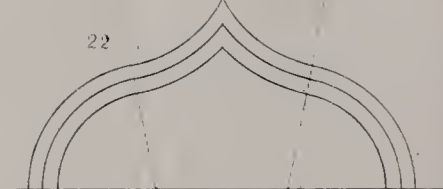
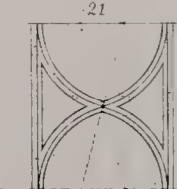
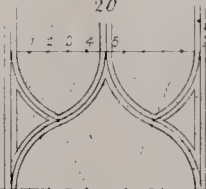
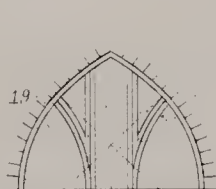
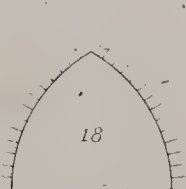
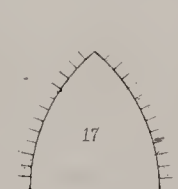
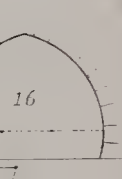
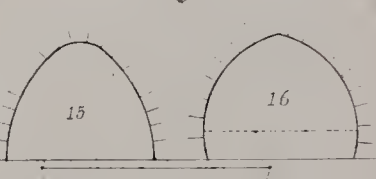
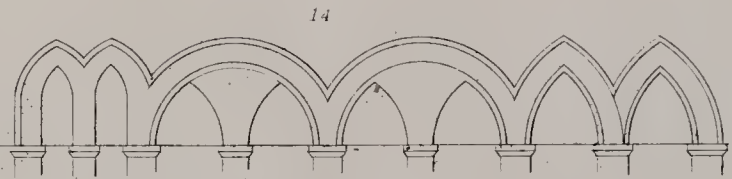
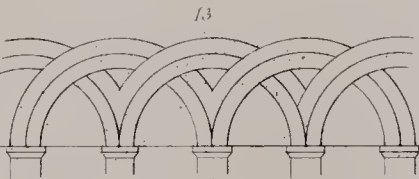
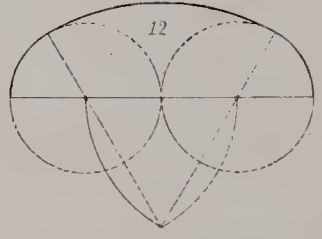
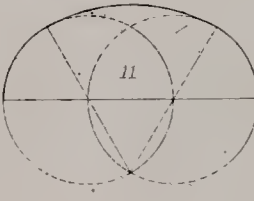
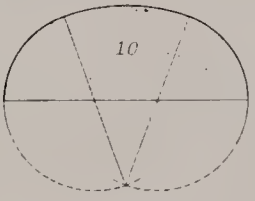
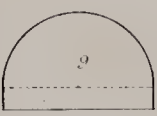
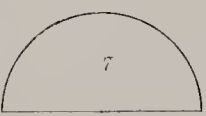
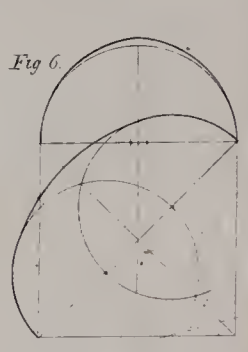
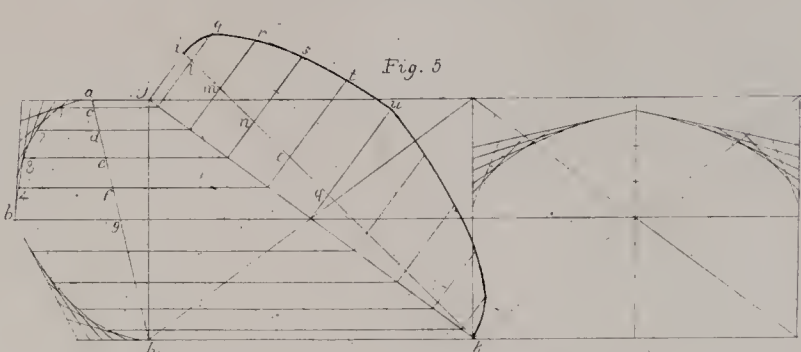
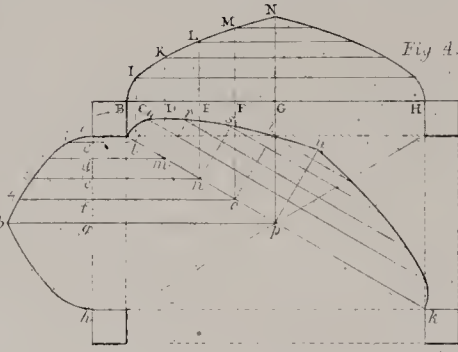
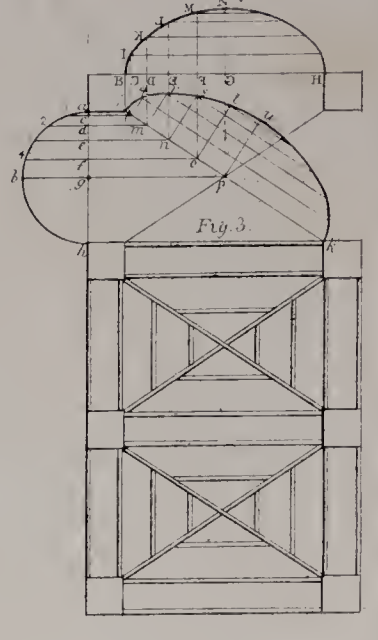
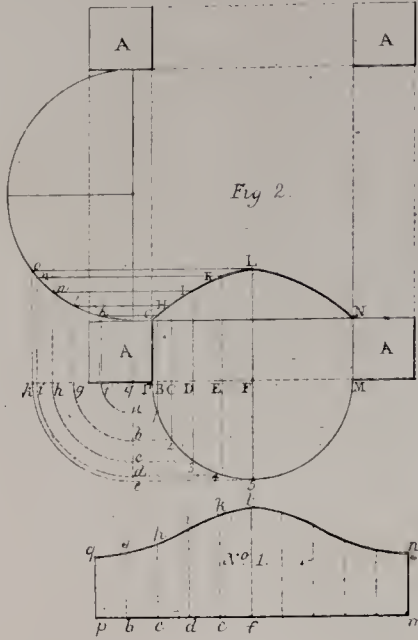
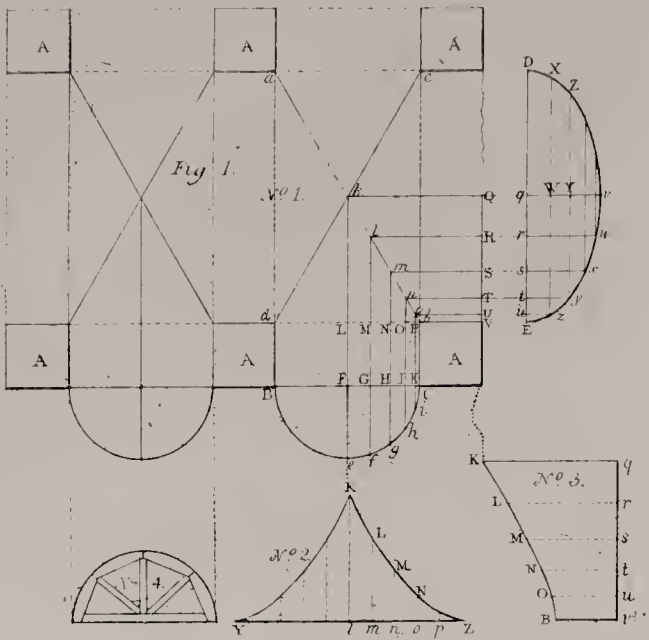
9. Semi-circular, but including a portion of the perpendicular jambs above the impost.—This form is seen in a side—arch of the rood tower of Malmsbury Abby Church where the transepts being narrower than the nave and choir, two of the four arches were limited to a less breadth, though required to equal the others in height.

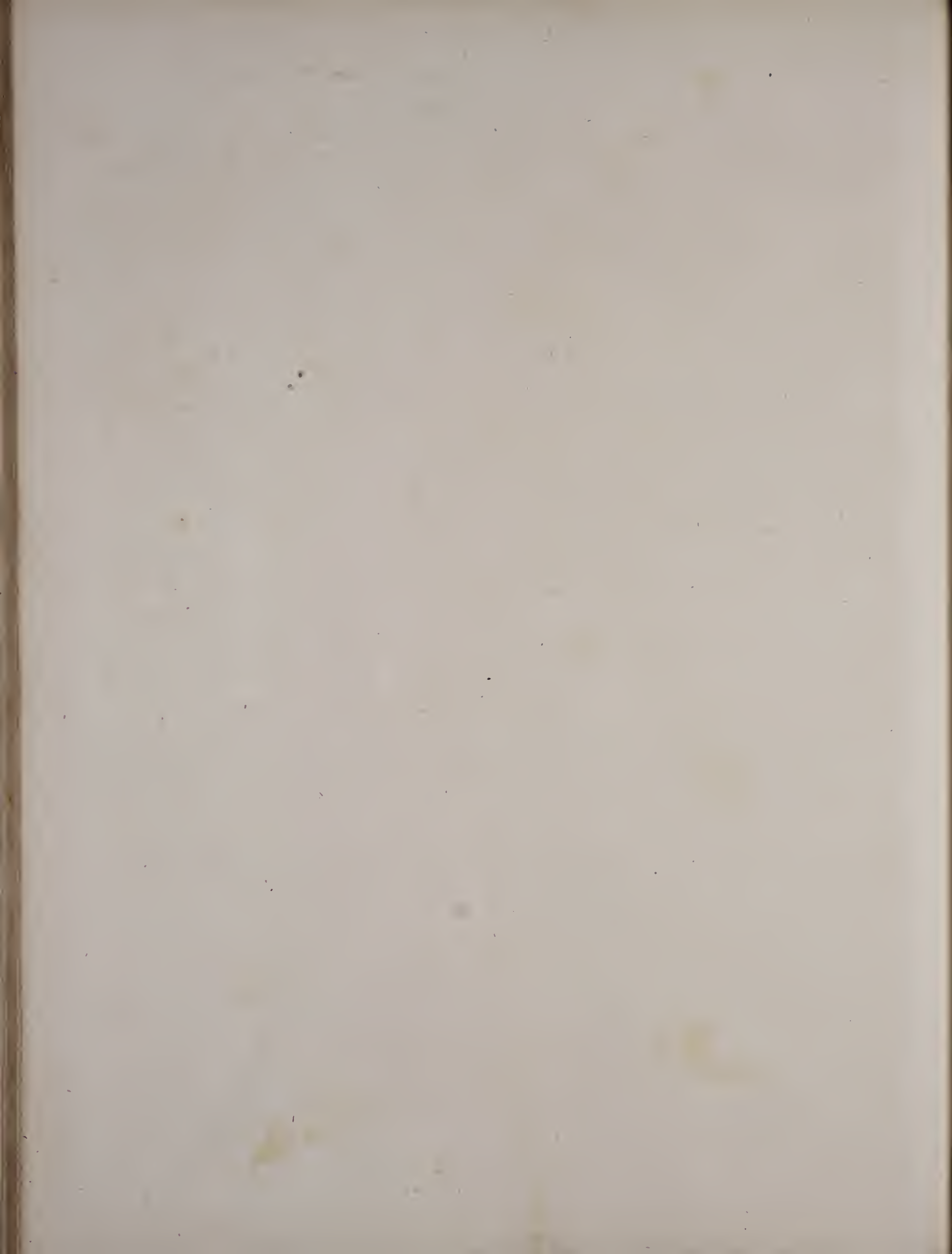
10.-11 and 12 Elliptical Arches described from three centres—Arches of this form are not only found in Norman buildings, mixed with the semi-circular but frequently over doors and windows in the early part of the fifteenth century, along with the pointed Arch and the other characteristics of the style of that period.

* A specimen of this kind of structure may be seen in A. Pugin's eminent works on Gothic Architecture taken from various ancient edifices in England (vol. 2, pl. 47.)

† The difference between the plan of any body and the seat of a point or line is distinguished thus. The plan is a figure upon which a solid is carried up so that all sections, parallel to the plan, are equal and similar to that plan, and the surfaces are perpendicular; but the seat of a line is not in contact with the line itself, but a perpendicular erected from any point in the seat will pass through the corresponding point of the line itself.







DESIGNS FOR ROOFS.—(PLATE 3.)

13. Semi-circular Arches intersecting each other.—Some instances occur of intersecting pointed Arches and others of Arches if they may be so called, described by straight lines forming a series of intersecting triangles raised on one base.

14. Semi-circular and Lancet Arches combined.—Such mixture is commonly found in buildings of the twelfth century, when the pointed Arch began to prevail.

15. Elliptical, resembling a pointed Arch only rounded at the top.

16. Moorish.—This form may be classed with the horse-shoe, No. 8.

It is described from two centres placed above the impost Arches, somewhat of this form are occasionally met with in buildings of the early pointed or Gothic style, they are only found placed over narrow apertures.

17. Lancet Arch described from two centres on the out side of the Arch.—Those termed lancet have been happily applied to the tall narrow windows which enlighten the structures of the thirteenth century.

Salisbury Cathedral is the most complete specimen of that style. These lights have each a pointed arch at top, and the arch is frequently raised on straight lines above the mouldings of the impost where such mouldings occur; this is indeed the lancet from comparing the arch to the head of the lancet.

18. Equilateral where the point of the base and crown form an equilateral triangle.—This may be called the standard form of the pointed arch and is perhaps the most beautiful.

19. Four-centred pointed—some beautiful varieties of decoration were struck out from this form, but it must still be regarded as less perfect than the simple arch struck from two centres, as in Nos. 17 and 18, 20, 21, and 22. The combination of circles, and portions of circles, being so infinitely diversified in specimens of florid tracery especially in the larger windows of the fourteenth century it would be in vain to attempt to analyze all their principles. We may observe however that most of them were divided at first into a few large forms, and these again subdivided into as many openings as the space would allow, so that the openings were never broader than those of the perpendicular lights of the window and seldom less than one-half of the breadth of one of these. In proportioning the void and solid parts of windows we seldom find the mullion exceed one-third of the light in the larger divisions, nor smaller than one fifth.

23 and 24. Four-centred Arches whose centres must be upon the same diagonal lines, which are found by dividing the base-line of the arch into more or less parts, according to the fixed height of the arch.—These are some of the various forms of what has been called the Tudor arch; being chiefly found in buildings erected under the reigns of the princes of the house of Tudor, we find however that this flattened arch was used more than fifty years before the accession of Henry 7th, the first English sovereign of that name.

25 and 26. Methods of describing a pointed arch by the intersection of straight lines.—This arch may be classed with the four-centred, being of a less curve in the upper part than the lower. Many actual examples of arches appear to have been struck out, by the intersections of straight lines, in specimens of the latter period.

27. Rampant pointed, described also, by the intersection of straight lines.—(See what is said of fig. 5.)

28 and 29. Mode of describing a pointed arch by the crossing of straight lines. This arch also may be classed with the four-centred.

30 and 31. Four-centred pointed of the same class as Nos. 23 and 24, but differently described.

THE ROOFING.

The roof is that part of a building raised upon the wall, and extending over all the parts of the interior, in order to protect it from depredation, and from the severities and changes of the weather.

The Roof in Carpentry, consists of the timber-work which is found necessary for the support of the external covering.

The several timbers of a roof are, *principal rafters, tie-beams, king-posts, queen posts, struts, collar-beams, straining-sills, pole plates, purlins, ridge-pieces, common rafters, and camber-beams.* The use of these will appear from the following description of them.

Principal-rafters, are the two pieces of timber, in a framed roof, that form the two equal sides under the covering.

A *Tie-beam,* is a piece of timber, connecting the end of the principal rafters, in order to prevent them from spreading, by the weight of the covering. The *tie-beam* is therefore used as a string, and is in a state of tension.

A *king-post* or *principal-post,* is a vertical piece of timber, extending from the meeting of the two principal rafters to the tie-beam, for the purpose of supporting the tie beam in the middle.

Queen-posts, are two pieces of timber, equidistant from the middle of the truss the one suspended from the head of one of the principal rafters, and the other with a level piece of timber between them.

Struts are those props which support the principal rafters in one or more points so as to divide them into equidistant parts.

A *collar-beam* is the piece of timber framed between two queen-posts.

A *straining-sill* is a horizontal piece of timber, disposed between the end of the queen-posts, to counteract the efforts of the struts, in pushing the principals nearer to each other.

A *pole-plate* is a beam over each opposite wall, supported upon ends of the tie-beam or upon the feet of the principal rafters.

Purlins are horizontal pieces of timber, supported by the principal rafters.

A *ridge piece* is a beam at the apex of a roof, supported by the king-post, only the heads of the principals.

Common rafters are inclined pieces of timber, parallel to the principal rafters, supported by the pole-plates.

Camber-beams are those timbers which are supported upon purlins over the collar-beams and support the boarding for a leaden platform.

Fig. 1, is a design for a roof of a very narrow span, which ought not to be

employed over a space exceeding fifteen or twenty feet. Figs. 2, 3, 4, and 5 are examples which may be employed for a space of thirty or forty feet where the roof is shingled, or tinned.

Fig. 6 is a design for a roof for a narrow span, and calculated for an arched ceiling, having only one collar beam, without a tie at the bottom.

Figures 7 and 8 exhibits two designs of trusses suitably constructed for the roofs of churches, and are calculated for a span of seventy or eighty feet.—fig. 9 is a truss suitable for a small church of forty or fifty feet span.

Figures 10, 11 and 12 shows the elevations, and the construction of the timber work of a roof and cupola, for a small church of forty or fifty feet span.—Fig. 10 represents the side of the truss and frame.

Fig. 12—represents the frame as seen in the length of the roof.—Fig. 11—shows the plan of the frame part of the deck of the belfrey which the upper part or story is framed into, these timbers should be well locked together and bolted; which I think will be sufficiently strong without the posts and timbers being extended down and framed into the collar beams, as they are generally for it is a bad practice to load down a roof with unnecessary timbers; the least timber that can be put into a roof to make it sufficiently strong the better.

The upper part of this cupola is framed out with planks or joist projecting out far enough to receive the entablature.

Fig. 13.—is a design for a truss suitably constructed for a church or any other large building where it is designed to raise an arched ceiling and is calculated for, sixty or seventy feet span.

In this example it will be necessary to make the roof steeper than in the other examples heretofore described; and the timber also should be well seasoned, which will make the work better.—Fig. 14 shows the method of connecting the tie beam to that of the principal rafter.—Fig. 15—shows the longitudinal section of the tie beams and king post. The tie beams are locked into each other, so that the outsides of each are in the same plane. The king post is to be made in two parts, and a space cut away in each half so as just to admit the tie beams when locked together to pass through them.—Fig. 16.—shows three different methods for scarfing timber.

CONSTRUCTION OF STONE AND WOODEN BRIDGES.

Fig. 1—Shows the centre of Westminster Bridge which is partly supported by pieces strutting from the footings, and partly by piles driven into the bed of the river.*

Fig. 2—Is the centre of Blackfriars Bridge; which is entirely supported by pieces strutting from the footings and pier.—References.—AAA Timbers which support the centering.—BB.CC Upper and lower striking plates cased with copper.—DD Wedges between the striking plates for lowering the centre.—EEE Double trussing pieces to confine the braces.—FFF Apron pieces to strengthen the ribs of the centre.—GGG Bridgings laid on the back of the ribs.—HHH Blocks between bridgings to keep them at equal distances.—III Small braces to confine the ribs tight.—KKK Iron straps bolted to trussing pieces and apron pieces.—LLL Ends of the beams at the feet of the truss pieces.—MMM Principal braces.

Fig. 3—A longitudinal section of an arch of Waterloo bridge, showing the piles on which the piers are raised, the masses of bricks composing the standards, and the centre supporting the arch. The dotted line shows the direction of a curve in which the weight is so distributed that the different pressures to which the edifice is exposed have no tendency to change the form of the arch.

Fig. 4—Shows a longitudinal section of the arch and centre of the Bridge that is built over the little river crossing Main-street in the city of Hartford, (Conn.) The form of the centre of the bridge is different from those described: it is moreover well constructed. The bed of the river is a solid rock, and runs nearly on a horizontal plane between the two butments; during the summer season the river is generally shallow, which made it convenient for bedding the sills and timbers into which the struts are framed.—References.—A, shows a part of the longitudinal and transverse section of the timbers running horizontally in the bed of the river, into which the struts are framed.—B Shows the form of the wedges that are placed under the feet of each strut for lowering the centre.—C Shows a part of the transverse section of the frame.—D Is a section of the arch ribs.—E shows the manner in which the joints are connected.

* The first bridge that was built in England of any note, was what is called the "London Bridge." This bridge was originally begun in the year 1176 by a priest, called Peter, curate of St. Mary Colechurch, a celebrated architect of those times, it was thirty-three years in building; but this period will not appear surprising, when it is considered that it was built over a river in which the tide rises twice every day, from thirteen to eighteen feet. The bridge at first consisted of twenty arches, but in 1758 the middle pier was taken down and the two adjacent arches were converted into one, the span of which is seventy two feet; its breadth is forty-five feet, and for many ages there were houses along each side of it, but these were removed when the middle pier was taken down in 1758. The remaining arches are narrow, and the piers inconveniently large, being from fifteen to twenty-five feet in thickness. The passage over the bridge is commodious, but in other respects there is nothing remarkable about it.

The foundation Stone of Westminster Bridge was laid by the Earl of Pembroke (a nobleman distinguished by his taste in Architecture) on the 24th of January, 1739. It consists of thirteen large and two small semi-circular arches, of which the middle one is seventy six feet span, and the parapets forty four feet. The engineer was M. Labeleye, a native of France; James King is believed to have aided in its design.

About ten years after this magnificent edifice was completed, another was begun about a mile lower down the river, known by the name of Blackfriars; the design was by Robert Mylne; it consists of nine arches of an elliptical form, of which the middle one is one hundred feet in span, and the breadth across the bridge is forty three feet six inches. The arches being elliptical, and of wider span than those of Westminster, the bridge of course has a lighter appearance. The general style of it bespeaks a mind emboldened by the success of his predecessors, to advance with cautious step in the practice of bridge building. It is a work of great merit and will stand a comparison with any other constructed in the same age. It was finished in 10 1/2 years.

But the glory of England in bridge building, may be seen in the Strand or Waterloo Bridge, recently erected by Binnie, between Westminster and Blackfriars Bridges. Many other excellent Bridges have also been constructed in Great Britain, both of wood, iron, and stone.

The stone Bridge over the Little River, Hartford, Conn. was built in the year 1832; the design of its centre was given and erected by James Chamberlain, a practical architect and builder of this city, and Elisha Rathbun being the master-mason. It consists of an arch of 90 feet span, and in breadth 100 feet.

The bridge over the Hockanum river in East-Hartford, which fell a few years since, was occasioned by driving over a large drove of fatted cattle. There has since been a substantial covered bridge erected after Town's patent.

The remaining part of the plate shows five designs which I have given for wooden bridges.

Fig. 5, is a side elevation of the frame, clearly showing all the timbers and the manner in which they are connected together. This design I think sufficiently strong for a bridge of ninety and even a hundred feet span. If there be any cause for giving away, it will be from the spreading of the two outer butments: if these be built sufficiently strong to keep the lower struts to their proper place I think there will be no danger.

A bridge of this description should be filled in with puncheons between the principal timbers on each side of the truss or strings, standing vertically and not more than two feet apart from centre to centre, and covered over with boards on both sides, which should be matched or feather-edged, and strongly nailed with large nails or spikes, which not only keep the timber from being exposed to the storms, but makes the work more substantial, and it also prevents the timbers in a great measure from working or springing up and down which is of great injury to a bridge. This is the reason that Town's patent bridge has so good effect.

It is not by common travel that our bridges are injured and sometimes broken down, but by driving over large droves of cattle and horses. Drivers should be particularly careful in crossing a bridge, not to let their whole drove enter the bridge at the same time, for if their immediate weight does not break the bridge it will materially injure it.

Figures 6 and 7, are designs for bridges, which may be from fifty to sixty feet span or even wider, if they are built of good timbers and strongly covered.—Fig. 6 is supported by three iron bolts and two posts, the tenons may run through the sill, or tie beam and plate, and may be keyed. Fig. 7 is supported by three posts which are locked to the sill and plate, the posts are in two parts as represented in F.—G shows the manner in which they are locked to the sill and plate. The posts should be made of white-oak timber, as the ends which run below and above the sill and plate, will not be as liable to split. These being well locked and bolted together, will make a strong work, and will answer all the purposes of long iron bolts, and even better.

Figures 8 and 9 are of the same principle as figure 7, only calculated for a less span.

PLATE 11.

This plate exhibits a number of useful machines and their construction as made use of by builders and mechanics in general.

Figure 1, No. 1, and fig. 1, No. 2 shows the elevation of a machine that is called a crane; this machine is used to raise stone and other heavy bodies on to buildings, and it is also placed on wharves for the purpose of unloading small vessels and boats, it can be constructed so as to be taken apart and put together again as occasion may require.

Figure 1, No. 3, shows a plan of a frame drawn on a small scale.

Fig. 1, No. 4, shows a plan of the cap of the upper part of the frame; there must be a sufficient weight placed on the frame at A, to keep it in its place.

The cog wheel to which the wench or cylinder is attached and about which the rope winds is generally from 1 foot 6 inches to 2 feet in diameter, and the other wheel to which the crank is attached should be about one third of the size of the other.

Fig. 2, No. 1, fig. 2 No. 2, shows the elevation of a machine which is mostly used for hoisting peers for shop fronts, &c.

The frame part should be made of light timber, pine or spruce would be most proper, as it may be easily handled; the foot of the frame should be placed near the place where you intend to set your pier, and a little inclined as represented at No. 2; it may be secured by guy ropes, or by two light poles being made fast at the upper part of the frame. The cast iron cog wheels may be of the size of those of the crane, heretofore described.

Fig. 3, No. 1, fig. 3. No. 2, and fig. 3, No. 3, shows the plan and elevations of a wheel suitably constructed for raising goods &c. The wheel and machinery is generally erected in the upper part of wholesale stores for the purpose of hoisting and lowering goods from one loft to another.

The design that I have here given consists of three shafts; and to hoist heavy goods, the centre shaft should be used, which is attached to the great wheel, and to hoist light goods, such as boxes, bales, &c.; when they are to be raised many stories the two outer shafts will answer all purposes, and the work may be performed with much greater rapidity; you can either hoist upon one, and lower on the other, or hoist and lower both at the same time. The great wheel is generally made from 8 to 14 feet in diameter, and the shaft from 8 to 12 inches. ABC Shows a plan of a check or lever to stop the force of the wheel, which should be strongly secured at A, and a rope attached at the end B, leading over a pulley at C, then passing through to the lower story.

Fig. 4 shows a method of raising a stone column with lewis irons, D is the plan of a lewis which should be let into the end of the column very tight, having no room to play. A, A views of the capstan's. B and C a view and plan of the frame of a capstan. The frame which the large falls are attached to, may be secured by guy ropes or light poles as described in fig. 2, No. 2.

NOTE.—The weight of a stone column or any other form of a stone may be accurately ascertained, by finding the number of cubic feet and inches it contains by the rules given in (section 2d of mensuration) and multiplying the number of feet thus found by 125, which is the number of pounds contained in a cubic foot of stone.

A column that is 2 feet 6 inches at the lower diameter, and two feet at the upper, and 15 feet in length, contains about 60 cubic feet, and $60 \times 125 = 7500$ pounds; a column of this size, and even larger may be raised.

Fig. 5 shows a method of raising a truss by a gin pole.

This should be of a suitable length to raise the truss to its destined height, and should be made either of pine or spruce, so as to be easily raised or lowered: a stick that is from 10 to 12 inches in diameter at the bottom and from 6 to 8 at top, will be sufficiently large to raise a truss from 60 to 90 feet span.

This when placed upright should be secured by small falls for the guys which

will be more convenient, and safer than guy ropes, three in number will be all that is necessary, letting them run off at different angles, and properly secured at the bottom. A shows the manner in which they are secured at the top, and also the big block of the large fall, the fall part runs down and passes through a snatch block at B, then off on to the capstan at C.

In raising the trusses of a church they should be put together on the main floor and well secured; commence raising them at one end of the building, and when you have got one raised and placed to its proper place and well braced, slip the gin along where the second one is to stand, and this being raised and properly secured to the other, proceed in this manner through the whole building; a good set of hands working under a master workman, will generally be able to complete the whole in one day.

Fig. 6, shows the manner of rasing a purchase which is called by seamen a Spanish burden; A is a large single block which the runner is rove through, and one end of the runner is made fast to the double block at B, the other end hooks on to the weight at C, and also the single block of the fall, the fall part being rove through a snatch block at D, for the purpose of attaching a horse or a yoke of cattle, &c. This machine will be found useful for loading stone or large logs, on two set of wheels; this being placed near one end of a log and properly fixed for hoisting, fasten a horse to the fall and raise one end of the log up to a proper height, place one set of wheels under and lower the end, then the machine being placed at the other end, and raised in the same manner; this way of loading stone or logs is easily and quickly performed.

Figs. 7 and 8, show the elevations of a pile driver, a machine for driving piles into the ground, of which there are many kinds, some are worked by a number of men who raise a heavy weight to a small height, and then let it fall upon the pile, till by reiterated blows they drive it to the required depth. This machine is extremely simple. A long thick plank of wood is fixed up close to the pile, having a mortise through the upper end, in which a pulley is fitted; a rope goes over this to suspend the rammer which is a large block of hard wood, properly hooped to prevent it from splitting. In rising and falling, it slides against the base of the plank, and is guided by irons which are fixed to the ram and bent around the edges of the plank in the manner of hooks. The plank when placed upright is secured by guy ropes in the manner of the mast of a ship; the end of the great rope which suspends the ram has ten or twelve small ropes spliced into it, for as many men to take hold of, to work it. They raise the ram up three or four feet by pulling the ropes all together, and then letting them go, the ram falls upon the pile head. When the pile becomes firm enough to cause the ram to rebound, they take care to pull the ropes instantly after the blow, that they may avail themselves of the leap it makes. This is the simplest form of the machine.

But for large works such as bridges, &c. the piles are driven by a different kind of machine: this has a very heavy iron ram as represented at E and F, in (figs. 7 and 8) with mechanical powers, by which it is raised to a very considerable height, and then let fall, instead of continually repeating small blows. This machine is constructed by two uprights erected on the frame, and supported by two braces, which is framed into the uprights and the cross feet or frame at the bottom, then let two pieces be framed horizontally, one on each side, running from the uprights into the braces at B, then let two maple planks be framed into these, and the bottom at A standing vertically, one on each side of the frame, for the crank and cylinder to run in, of which they should be from six to eight inches wide, and about two inches in thickness, the upper part of the frame may be constructed as represented in figs. 7 and 8, with a pulley attached to the upper part of the frame, at I and J, for the rope to run over, of which one end of the rope is made fast to the cylinder at C, and the other end running over the pulley at J, and so down to H, where it is made fast to the eye, or hoop of the tongs, H is a piece called a follower, consisting of a wooden block sliding between the uprights, and morticed to receive the iron tongs, which take hold of an eye on the top of a cast iron ram, or weight at E.

The rope is attached to the follower by an iron hoop, of which the form of it is seen in fig. 7, through which the centre pin of the tongs passes near H of the follower; the ram or weight E being held by the tongs, is drawn up by turning the crank at D till the tails of the tongs come to the inclined planes at the upper part of the frame, which opening the lower ends of the tongs, disengages them from the eye of the ram, and it falls upon the head of the pile. G is the plan, or form of the ram, showing the enter grooves, made in the edges by which it is guided as it rises and falls.

The fillets of iron are fixed withinside of the uprights, and they should be from 1 to 1½ inches in thickness, and about 2 in width, and they should be let into the sides of the uprights, one inch and properly fastened.

DESIGNS FOR FRONTISPIECES AND PORTICOES. PLATE 12.

There are two designs for frontispieces and two for porticoes, of a suitable size for modern buildings.

In drawing these examples I have followed as nearly as possible their respective orders, or style; there is a scale of feet and inches applied to each example of which their general proportions may be measured, though it is not expected that the architect will govern his work by these scales, or at least in all parts.

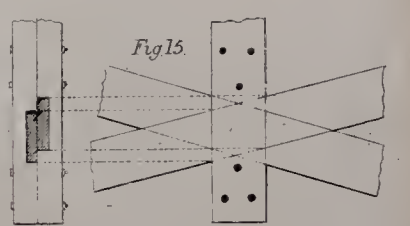
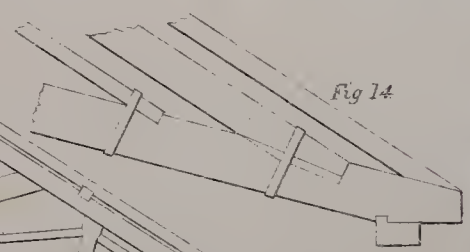
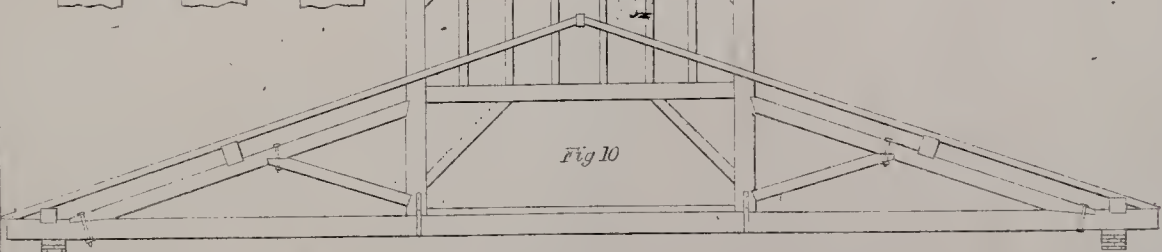
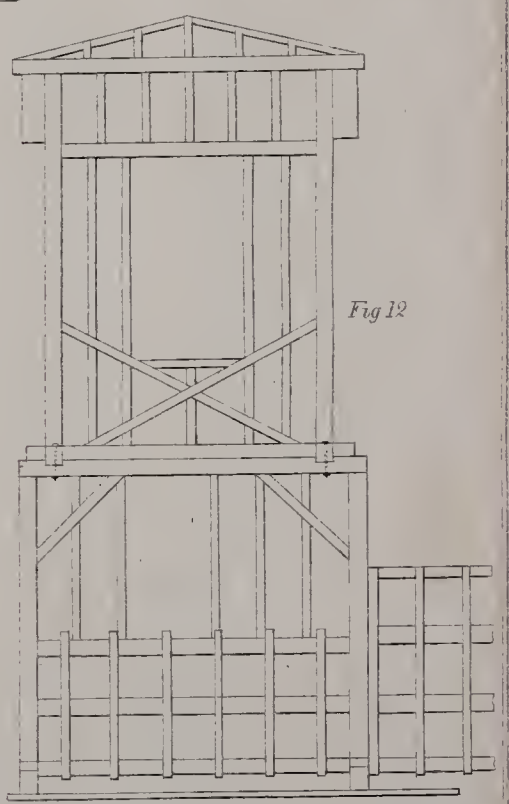
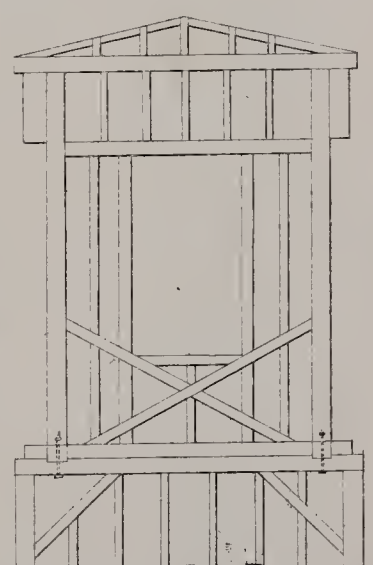
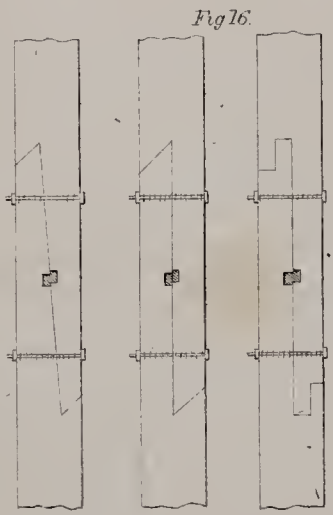
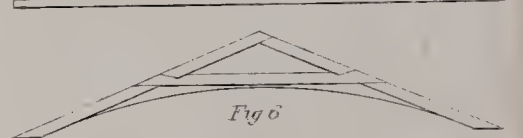
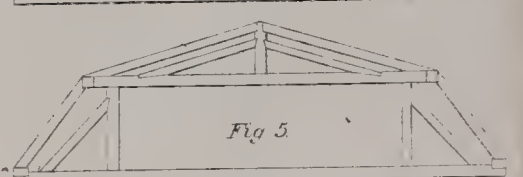
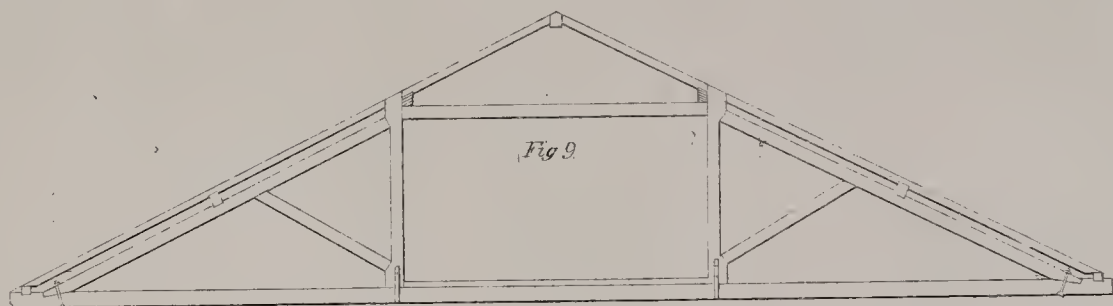
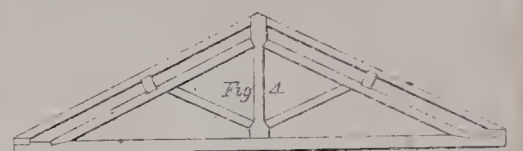
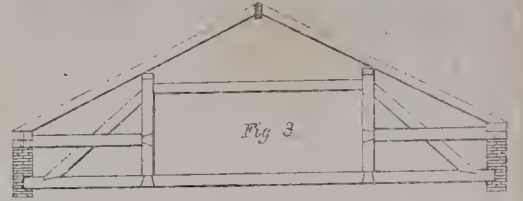
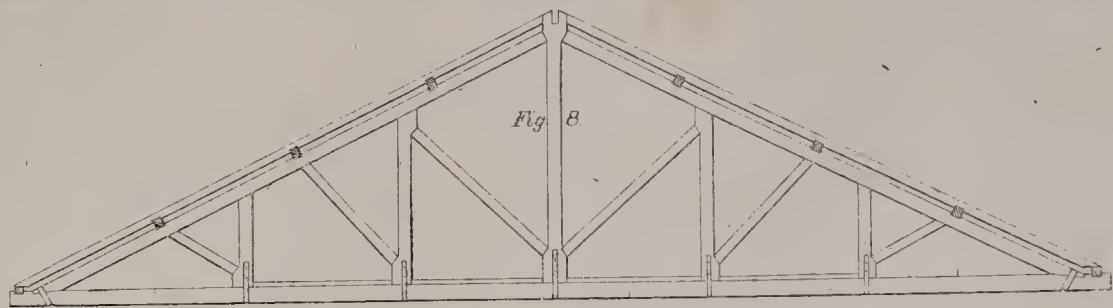
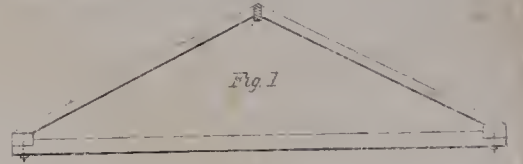
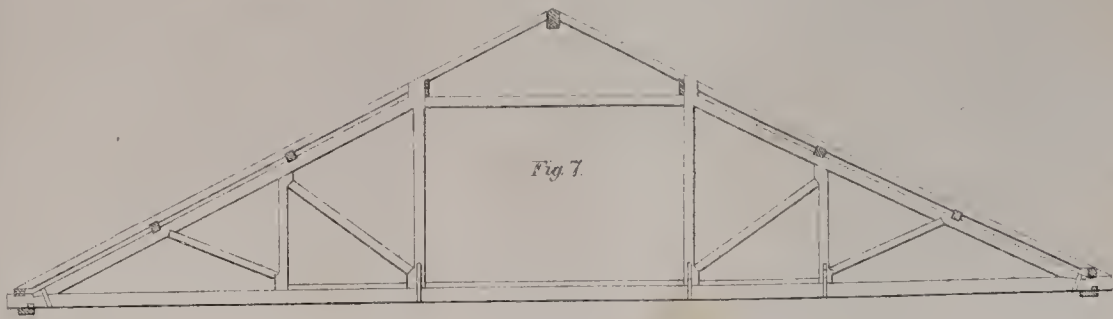
Fig. 1, No. 1, shows the elevation of a frontispiece cased with a Grecian architrave (for further particulars respecting the form of the architrave, see figs. 8 and 9, pl. 16.) The frame of the door, and side lights is recessed into the wall or house, forming a kind of porch which is quite fashionable at the present day.

Fig. 1, No. 2, shows a section of the jambs and the manner of casing the same.

Fig. 1, No. 3, the plan. A is the form of the panels at BB.

Figs. 9 and 10, pl. 19, shows a design of a console* drawn to a larger size, they should be neatly wrought, and also the ornaments, if otherwise, being so close to the eye, the work will look better plain, but if the work be neatly done, it will have a pleasing effect.

* Consoles are also called according to their form *ancones* or *trusses*, *mutules* and *modillions*.



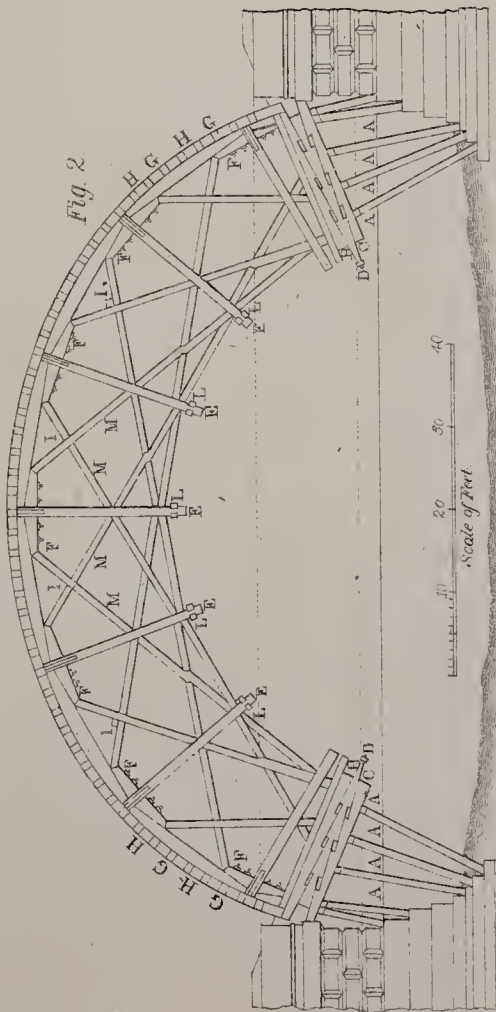


Fig. 2.

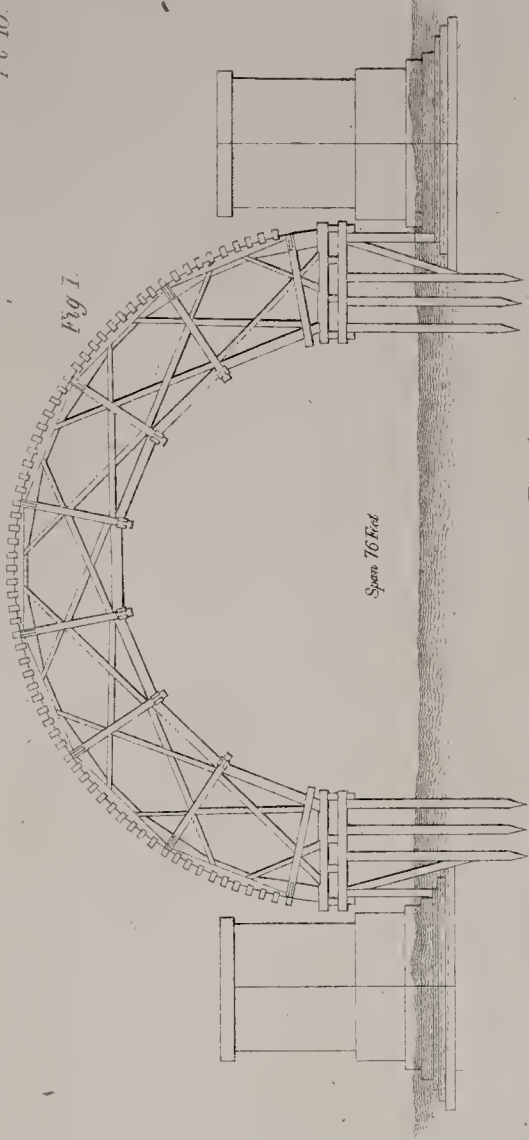


Fig. 1.

Span 76 Feet

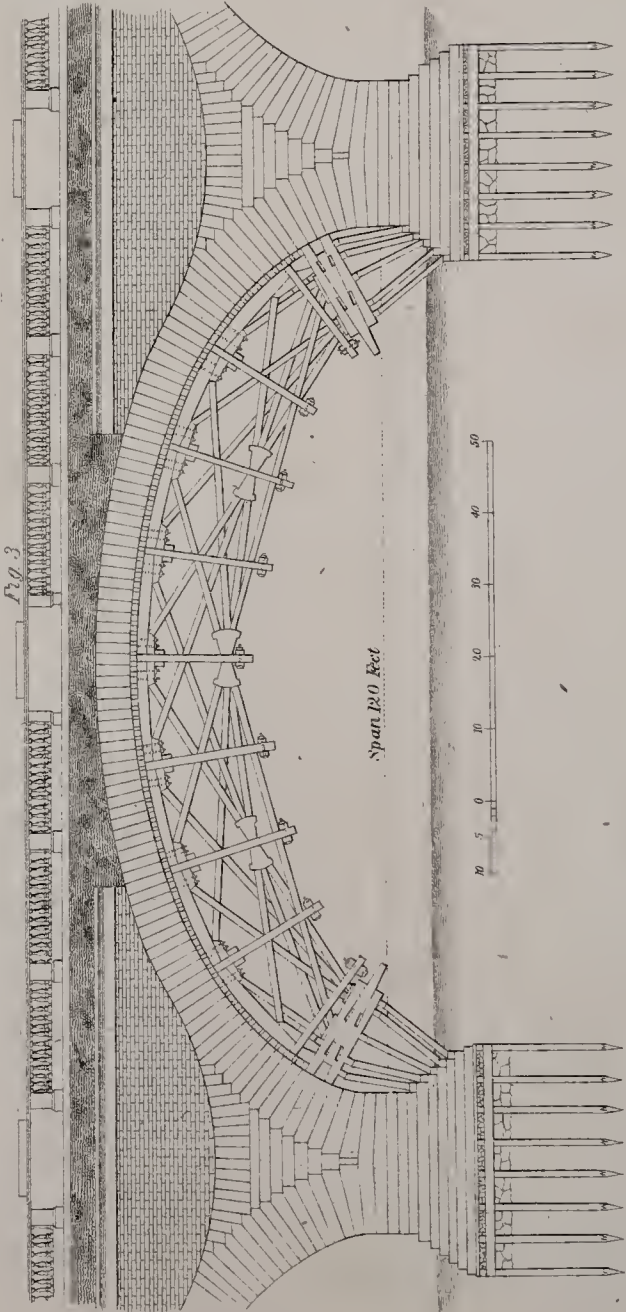


Fig. 3.

Span 120 Feet

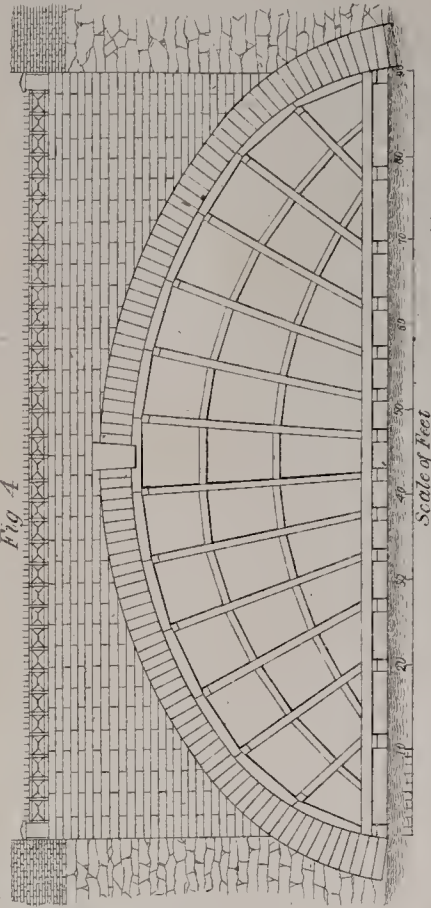


Fig. 4.

Scale of Feet

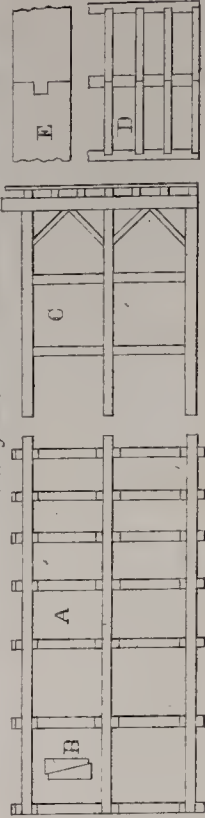


Fig. 5.

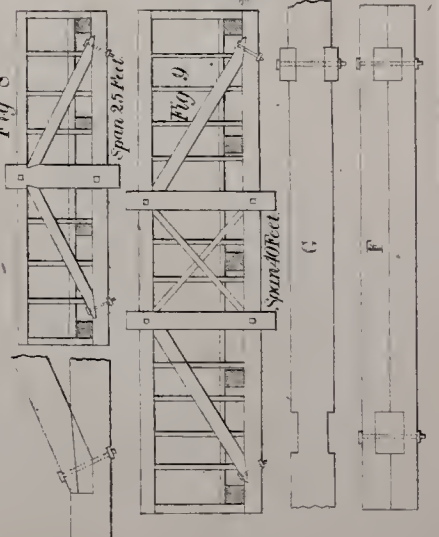


Fig. 6.

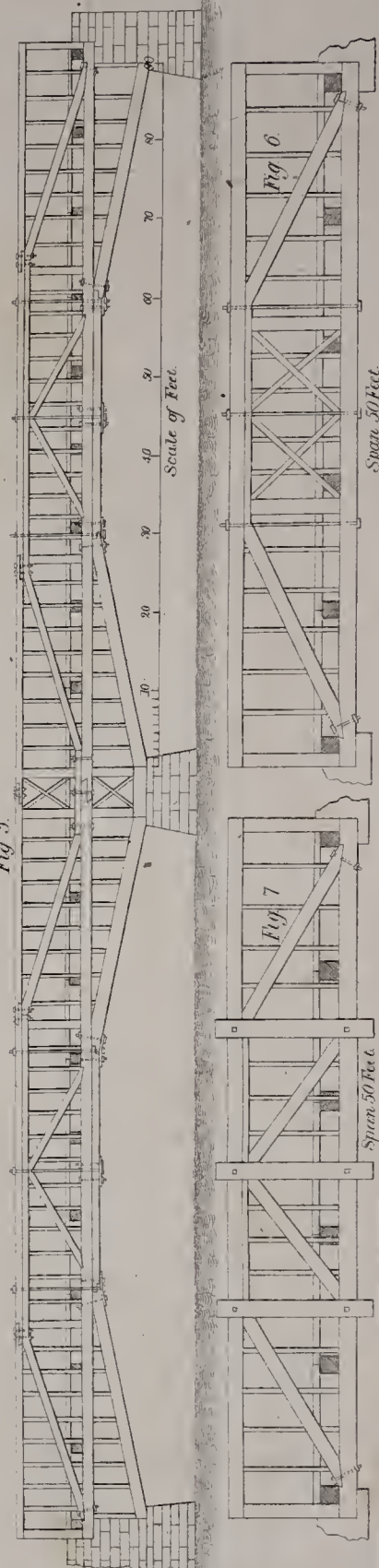


Fig. 7.

Span 25 Feet

Fig. 8.

Span 40 Feet

Fig. 9.

Span 50 Feet

Span 50 Feet

(for further particulars respecting the form of this door and ornaments see fig. 1. pl. 18.)

Fig. 2. No. 1. Shows the elevation of another which is more plain the antae and entablature is taken from the order of the little Ionic Temple on the river Illyssus. To proportion this frontispiece let the height of the antae be divided into eight or eight and a half parts and give one of these parts for the diameter of the antae, which make a scale of sixty minutes, and then proportion the mouldings as given in plates 10, and 11, volume 1 of orders.

The frame of the door and sidelights is recessed as in the other example see (fig. 2, No. 2.) the plan; C represents the form of the diamond panels at DD

Fig. 3. The elevation of a portico of the doric order. Its general proportions is nearly the same as the examples of the order as represented on Plates, 5 and 6, volume 1 of orders.

The columns are six diameters in height, and the entablature two making eight diameters for the whole height. This example is more suitable for a narrow door way than one of wider dimensions for it is not in character to have the columns too much spread in this order, and they cannot be well coupled unless the portico be of larger dimensions, (for a description of the door see fig. 2 pl. 18.)

Fig. 4. An example for a portico, of which its proportions and outlines are in imitation of that order represented on plate 3, volume 1 of orders.

In this example I have also made the columns six diameters in height and given about one diameter and fifty minutes for the height of the entablature. This design is calculated for a house of large dimensions; and the entablature should project four feet and ten inches from the face of the building being equal to one half of the length of the entablature in front. The soffit of the epistylum may be made from fifty four to fifty six minutes in breadth and make the antae equal in breadth to the soffit and give one fourth of the breadth to the antae for the projection; and I should recommend the antae capital, that of the Choragic Monument of Trysallus see Plate 9 of orders instead of the one given on plate 3. This example and also that of fig. 3, may have the same proportions.

The plan of these two examples I have not given, but the door frames are calculated to be cased between the jambs or the walls of the building. F shows a section of the impost and rosettes (fig. 4.) G the section of the frets at H H which are drawn about one third the full size.

Plate 13 Exhibits two more examples for porticoes of a richer character.

Fig. 1 is an elevation of an Ionic portico; its proportions and outlines are in imitation of that order as represented on plate 14 volume 1. The columns I have made equal to eight and a half diameters in height, including the base and capital, the general rule is nine, the columns being so far spread it is necessary that they should be encased in size. The antae and soffit of the epistylum may be made equal in breadth to fifty four minutes and the soffit may be continued across between the antae the same as in front of the portico between the columns. C is the plan of the portico and door way; The columns set on buttresses, of which the steps are carried up between them; the door and sidelights are recessed into the house, which make a better finish, and gives a more pleasant appearance; the door is of the Grecian style and is similar to the one of the Ionic portico of the Temple of Minerva as represented on plate 13 volume 1. the door may be decorated with ornaments, or left plain as choice directs, and one half of the number that is given here will be sufficient, unless the door be of a large size, (for further particulars respecting the form of this door and ornaments see fig. 1. plate 13.)

Fig. 2. Is an elevation of a Corinthian portico; its proportions and outlines are in imitation of that order on Plate 23, volume 1 of orders as taken from the Choragic Monument of Lysicrates at Athens.

The columns I have made equal to nine and a half diameters in height including base and capital, being I think a suitable proportion for a portico of these dimensions. (Ten diameters is the general proportion.) B is the plan of the portico and door-way which is similar to the other examples the door and sidelights being recessed into the house and finished with an architrave round the side-lights. F shows the side view of the consoles setting under the soffit of the architrave. F shows the section of the impost and ornaments under the consoles in front: C shows a section of the front of the door, D the small ornaments, E the centre piece of the door.

DESIGNS FOR SHOP FRONTS PLATE 14.

This plate exhibits a number of designs for shop fronts and one design for a green house.

Figs. 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5, are designs with columns which are suitable fronts for city or country shops. Fig. 6 is a design for a building which is calculated for two shops or stores, one is represented shut, and the other open; in buildings of this description, the first story is generally built of free stone or granite; granite is the most substantial for the piers, as it is more hard than free stone.

Figs. 7 and 8, shows the side and end elevations of a green house supposed to stand joining some edifice as represented on plate 25. The antae and entablature is from the Choragic Monument of Trysallus as represented on (pl. 9 vol. 1 of orders) assigned to be used here; the windows on the side and ends may be made to admit glass of seventeen by eleven, those on the roof, or the sashes should be made of a different form; the bars of the sashes may be made of wood or cast iron with a suitable rabbet for to receive the glass and they should not exceed six inches apart, the glass should be of a thick quality to prevent injury by hail.—Two thirds of the height of the roof will be all that is necessary to be covered with glass, and this may be divided into two parts or sashes, let the lower sash be made stationary to the frame or rafters, and the under side of the upper sash should lie on a plane with the upper side of the lower one so they may be lowered or raised by pulleys and the top rail of the upper sash should run into a groove under the butts of the shingles or whatever the upper part of the roof may be covered with.

DESIGNS FOR SHUTTING WINDOWS (PLATE 15.)

Fig. 1 Shows a section of the sash-frame, shutters &c.

A, top of a stone sill. B, blinds.—C sill of the sash frame, being of a different section to the uprights.—D A section of the lower sash.—E Shutters showing their form when folded. F Soffit at the head of the window—G Section of the inside bead of the sash frame.—H Parting-bead, and serves to separate the upper from the lower sash, in order that they may work freely and independently of each other. I Pulley stile of the sash-frame. J Inside lining. K Weights to balance the sashes. L Back lining of the sash frame. M Outside lining. N Hanging stile. O Hook and hinge. P Brick work. QQ The rough furrings. R Back lining. S Grounds. T The plastering. U Pilaster or architrave. V shutters folded back into the boxing. W Knob. Fig. 2, Is a vertical section through the head of the sash-frame. A Stone cap. B Brick work. C Lintel to support the brick-work. D Rough furring. E Grounds. F Pilaster. G Showing a vertical section of the tablet. H Hanging stile. I Outside lining. J Head of the sash-frame. K The soffit tongued into the head of the sash frame. L Inside bead or stop of the sash frame. M The pulleys. N Parting-bead. O Hook and hinge. Fig. 3 Is a vertical section through the lower part of the window. A Stone sill. B Bottom rail of the blind. C Sill of the sash-frame. D Parting-bead. E Inside bead or stop. F Bead connected with the sill and back. G Shutter butt. H Section of the back under window. I The elbow. Figs. 4 and 5 are two examples showing a section of the stiles the mouldings and part of the panel to shutters, drawn at full size for practice. Figs. 6, 7, and 8 are designs for mouldings. Fig. 6 is of a suitable size for outside doors. Figs. 7 and 8, for inside doors, shutters &c.

Plate, 16. Fig. 1 exhibits an interior elevation of a window, with shutters, which fold into the boxing, parallel to the plane of the window or wall, as represented at fig. 5 below. This method of casing windows for shutters is convenient where the wall is not sufficiently thick to admit of boxing-room in the side jambs; or where the room cannot be spared in the interior.

Fig. 2 Exhibits an interior elevation of a window with shutters, the jambs being playing as represented on pl. 15; which clearly shows all its details placed in their proper position. Figs. 3 and 4 are two examples showing a section of the meeting rails and part of the vertical bars and stiles. A A shows two methods in which the meeting rails may be connected. B The groove to receive the glass. C and D Sections of the vertical bars, and top rail. Fig. 5 Section of the sash frame and shutters, as represented in fig. 1. A The lower sash. B and C shutters folded into the boxing; the back shutters C is designed for blind slats in room of being paneled; the slats should be made of hard wood and stand vertically in the frame of the shutter. D Pilaster. E, F and G section of the plinth, in which the pilaster is placed.

This plinth and pilaster may be brought forward so as to have the vertical edge of the bead of the pilaster stand vertically at I as represented on the elevation in fig. 1. M Shows the plan and section at N in fig. 1 also.

Fig. 6. Shows a section of the pilasters the block against which the pilasters end at the upper angles of the window. A Is a section at B. And C is the section at D which the section of the moulding being transverse to that of A B: either of these examples will make a good finish; the blocks should be mitred together and well glued and for modern size rooms $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches will be a suitable width for the blocks and $6\frac{1}{4}$ for the pilasters and let the blocks be about $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch thicker than the pilasters. Fig. 7 exhibits another example for an interior window, which is cased with architraves and a surbase, the shutter is designed to slide into a boxing or between two partitions as represented in Fig. 10. The frame part of the shutter should be put together whole, and let the middle tier of muntins be double the width of the others and the stiles, and run a dado through the centre to receive the bead. Figs. 8 and 9 exhibits two examples for architraves, with their respective ornaments. These ornaments and all others which are liable to close inspection, should be well expressed, and neatly finished. Architraves should be proportioned to the size of the room and the apartments for which they are designed. Rooms which are from sixteen to eighteen feet square and ten feet between joints; seven to seven and a half inches will be a suitable proportion for these two examples.—For frontispieces and apartments which are of larger dimensions, they may be from nine to twelve inches in width, or wider according to the size and altitude. Fig. 10. Shows a section of a sash frame and shutter which is designed for a framed house. A Sill of the sash-frame. B Sill of the interior part of the surbase. C Shutter as standing in its vertical position which slides into a boxing, back to H between the two partitions. D is a rod of iron on which it runs, this rod may be from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{5}{8}$ in diameter, and one half of the thickness of it let into the sill or cap and properly fastened, and then let two window pulleys be let into the under side of the bottom rail of the shutter within about two inches of the stiles which will run much easier than on common sash rollers. E, E E, The rough furrings. F, F F. The vertical studs of the frame. G Outside covering.

DESIGNS FOR DOORS AND THEIR DECORATIONS. PLATE 17.

Figs. 1, 2, 3 and 4—Exhibits four designs for sliding doors.—Two of these examples are cased with architraves and pilasters, and Two with antae and entablatures. The doors to all of these examples are drawn of nearly the same width and height, it is necessary that the room should be higher between joints when finished with antae, instead of architraves or pilasters, it should not be less than twelve feet in height. The proportions of these two orders may be taken from figs. 1 and 2 pl. 19, which are drawn to a larger scale and expressed in minutes and parts; and the doors may be drawn from the scale which is given in feet and inches near Fig. 4. The other two examples which are finished with architraves and pilasters may be drawn from the scale near Fig. 3. Fig. 5 shows the plan and manner of casing them. A and B shows two designs of iron rods for the doors to run on. A consists of a round rod of iron or brass about $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch in diameter, one half of its size should be let into the floor and properly fastened with screws. This method is much cheaper than the other,

and will answer all purposes for light doors. Figs. 6, 7, 8 and 9 exhibits four designs suitably constructed for the same apartment, for which the sliding doors were intended, those should be arranged and proportioned according to the size and altitude of the room in which they are to be placed. Where a room is from 15 to 18 feet square, and from 9 to 10 feet in height, the common doors are generally 7 feet or 7 feet 2 inches in height, and 3 feet in breadth, and the folding or sliding doors which connect the two parlors, may be 8 feet in height and 3 feet 3 inches in breadth. If a room be of a larger size and from 10 to 12 feet between joints they may be from 7 feet 3 inches to 7 feet 6 in height, and from 3 feet to 3 feet 3 inches in breadth; and those that slide may be from 8 feet 3 inches to 8 feet 6 in height, and from 3 feet 3 to 3 feet 6 in breadth. The stiles top and frieze rails and muntins, may be from 4½ to 5 inches in width; the bottom rails 9 inches, and the middle rails in Figs. 7 and 8 may be from 7 to 7½ inches, and the stiles and rails &c. of the sliding doors should be made about ¼ inch wider than the others.

Plate 18—Exhibits a number of designs of doors, architraves, pilasters, base and surbase mouldings, impost mouldings, frets, &c.—Figs. 1 and 2 shows the manner in which the doors may be put together, of three of those designs which are given on pls. 12 and 13.—Fig. 1 is calculated and drawn for a door of 3 feet 4 inches in width, being nearly one half the full size. There is a scale twenty inches for the width of one half the door given, by which the parts may be measured. A, A, the turned ornaments, which should be for a door of this size, one placed at each angle on the inner frame; then let them be placed on the vertical part of the door so as the divisions will be equal to the breadth AA, which will be one half of the number that is described on the doors represented in Fig. 2 pl. 12, and Fig. 1 pl. 13. BB shows two designs for ornaments, which are drawn to a full size for practice. Fig. 2 shows a part of the frame of the door that is described in Fig. 3 on pl. 12, which is drawn one half the full size.

Figs. 3, 4, 5 and 6, shows three methods of casing doors with architraves and pilasters. Fig. 3 is cased with architraves standing on plinths at the bottom, which should be equal in height to the plinth of the base. A the partition plank. BB grounds. CC lath and plastering. DD Mopboards. E and G architraves. H rabbit casing. I furring. J part of the door. Fig. 4 is cased with pilasters which are worked whole or in one piece, and rabbited at AA and a bead turned on the edges. B is the butts which should be set out far enough to have the door swing clear of the casings, as represented by the dotted line. Fig. 5 and 6 shows the plan and vertical section of casing a door with pilasters. A in Fig. 5 is the plinth. B pilaster which stands on the cap of the plinth. C the base that finishes against the pilaster. DD plinth of base which is dadoed at E. F and GG the grounds and furrings. H lath and plastering. Fig 6 AA grounds. B and C facings which the pilasters set upon. Figs. 7, 8, 9, and 10, are designs for pilasters, architraves, and surbase mouldings for the finishing of windows. All these mouldings in Figs. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10, are drawn one third of the full size for practice for common size rooms which are from 9 to 10 feet in height.

A BC and D in Fig. 11 are given four designs for impost mouldings, which are drawn about three fourths of the full size for practice for common size doors.

Fig. 12 exhibits five designs for base mouldings, that are drawn one half the full size for practice for common size rooms.

On the lower part of this plate are designs given for frets.

Plate 19—Figs. 1 and 2 exhibits two designs of antae and entablatures which are more suitably constructed for frontispieces and interior finishing, than those of the orders.

Fig. 1 is imitated from the Choragic Monument of Trysallus, that stands at the foot of Acropolis or citadel of Athens.

Fig 2 is chiefly of my own design. The capital and mouldings are of the Grecian style. The heights and projection of the mouldings and parts are expressed in minutes and eighths.

The remaining part of this plate is taken up with Grecian ornaments, and ornamented mouldings &c. which seems to require no particular description.

Fig. 3 represents the enriched moulding of the antae capital of the Temple of Minerva Polias at Athens as represented on (pl. 13, vol. 1.)

Fig. 4 Egg and Tongue with beads below, belonging to the same cap.

Fig. 5 represents the ornament between the bead and small projecting band of the same.

Fig. 6 is the ornament on the Cymatium of the door of the same temple, stretched out on a flat surface.

Figs. 9 and 10 represent a front and a side view of a console of the same door, most of the remaining part of these figures were taken from Grecian structures, which on account of their foilage are more graceful, than those of the Romans.

OF STAIRS AND STAIR-CASEING.

DEFINITIONS OF THE PARTS OF STAIRS.

A flight of steps so called, means an assemblage of steps, so formed and united, that by walking on them, we ascend or descend from one height to another.

The surfaces on which we set our feet are called *treads*; and these for their convenience of walking, are set at equal distances and parallel to each other.

In order to give a solid appearance to the whole, every adjacent pair of treads are connected by a third and vertical piece, called a *riser*. Each riser and tread when fixed together, is called a step. The wall which supports the ends of the steps is called the stair-case.

When the ends of the steps terminate upon a vertical prism or pillar, the prism or pillar is called a *newel*.

If the ends of the steps be cut through in the surface of the newel and the pillar or prism be supposed to be removed, the space left open by the removal of the solid is called the *well-hole*.

Stairs that have a well-hole, or hollow in the centre, are called *Geometrical stairs*.

The meeting of the sides which form the external angles of the steps is called the line of nosing; but sometimes the line of nosing is covered with a moulding and then this moulding is called the *nosing*.

When the steps are of equal breadth; that is when the distance from the line of nosing to the riser is every where equal, the steps are denominated *flyers*.

When the treads of the steps diminish in breadth toward the well-hole, the steps are called *winders*.

As the ends of the steps generally terminate upon a surface which is perpendicular both to the risers, and treads, the surface on which they thus terminate is generally that of a cylinder.

A number of contiguous flyers are called a *flight*.

When the tread of the step is so broad as to be equal to two or more of the other steps, and situated between floors, it is called a *resting place*.

If the tread of the resting-place form a right angle, that is if the two rises be perpendicular to each other, the resting-place is called a quarter space, or quarter-pace.

When the breadth of the tread of a step is contained between the same vertical plane, or makes two right angles round the axis of the well-hole, the tread is called a half space or half pace.

Half-space, and quarter-spaces are generally made on floors; and in this case are called *landing places*.

The carriage of a stair consists of several peices joined, or framed together; when they are so constructed is called the carriage of the stairs.

A flight of steps is generally supported by two pieces of timber, placed under the steps and parallel to the wall, being fastened at one or both ends, to peices perpendicular thereto.

The pieces of timber or planks which are thus placed under the steps are called *rough strings*.

Dog-legged Stairs are those which have no well-hole, and consists of two flights without winders. The hand-rail, on both sides, is framed into vertical posts, in the same vertical plane, as well as a board which supports the ends of the steps. The boards are called *string-boards*, and the posts are called *newels*. The newels not only connect the strings, but they afford the principal support to the rail; and thus it may be affirmed that the newel posts and hand-rail, are all in one plane.

Open neweled Stairs are those which have a rectangular well-hole and are divided into two or three flights.

Bracketed Stairs are those where the string-board is notched so as to permit risers and treads to lie upon the notches, and pass over beyond the thickness of the string boards; the ends of the steps are concealed by means of ornamental peices called brackets.

Geometrical stairs, are generally bracketed; but the dog-legged and open-newelled stairs, only those of the best kind are bracketed.

A *Pitching Piece* is a piece of timber wedged into the wall, in a direction perpendicular to the surface of that wall, for supporting the rough strings at the top of the lower flight where there is no trimmer, or where the trimmer is too distant to be used for the support of the rough-strings.

Bearers are pieces of timber or planks fixed into and perpendicular to, the surface of the wall, for supporting the winders where they are introduced; the other end of the bearers is fastened to the string-board.

A *Notch Board* is a board into which the ends of the steps are let: it is fastened to the wall, or one of the walls of the staircase.

Curtail Step is the lowermost step of the stairs, and has one of its ends next to the well-hole formed into an ornament representing a spiral line.

These are the principal parts which belong to a stair or stairs; other parts connected with it belong to the hand-rail.

PROPORTIONS OF STAIRS &c.

The breadth of steps to common stairs is from nine to twelve inches. The breadth in elegant houses and public edifices, ought never to be less than ten, nor more than fifteen inches.

A step of greater breadth requires less height than that of a less breadth.

The general rule may therefore be as follows;—

Multiply the breadth and height of a given step together and divide the product by the breadth of the required step, and the quotient will be the answer; or by reciprocal proportion, as the given breadth belonging to the height required, is to the breadth of the given step, so is the height of the given step to the height of the required step.

For example, taking as a standard a step of 11 inches in breadth, and 6 inches in height, we may easily find the height of another of a given breadth, which we shall suppose to be 9 inches. The operation is thus;

$$\begin{array}{r} 9 : 6 :: 11 : \\ 6 \\ \hline 9)66(7.33 \\ 63 \\ \hline 30 \\ 27 \\ \hline 30 \\ 27 \end{array}$$

We find it to be 7½ inches for the height, which agrees with what would be allowed in common practice.

Before we lay out the stairs in a building, we must consider the height of the story and determine upon the height of the steps; which being done, we must bring the height of the story into inches and divide the number of inches in the height of the story, by the height of the step. Thus for example, suppose the height of the story to be ten feet three inches, and the height of the step to be seven inches, how many steps will be required in order to ascend to the given height. The operation is

Fig 1. A^o 1

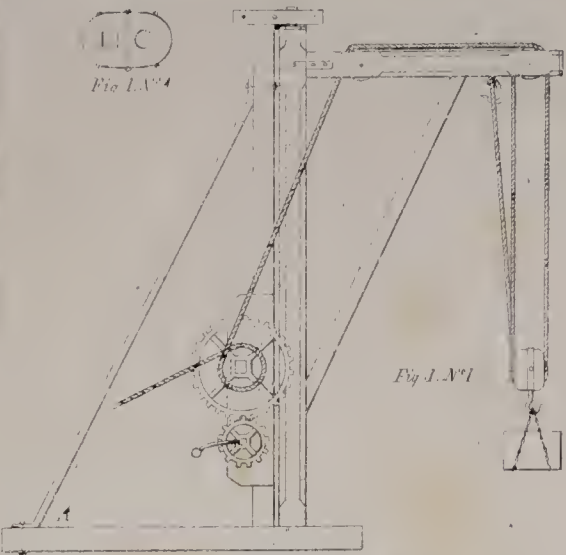


Fig 1. A^o 3

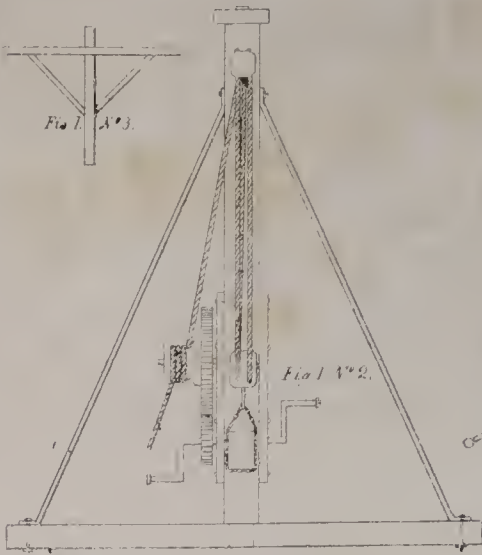


Fig 2. A^o 2

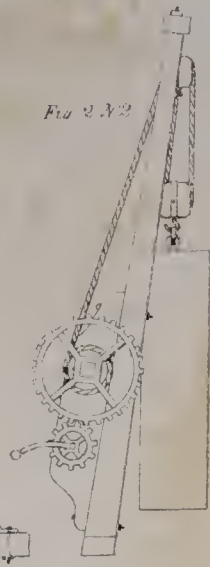


Fig 2. A^o 1

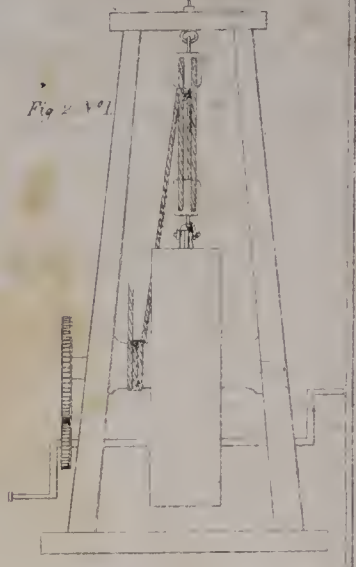


Fig 1. A^o 1

Fig 1. A^o 2

Fig 3. A^o 1

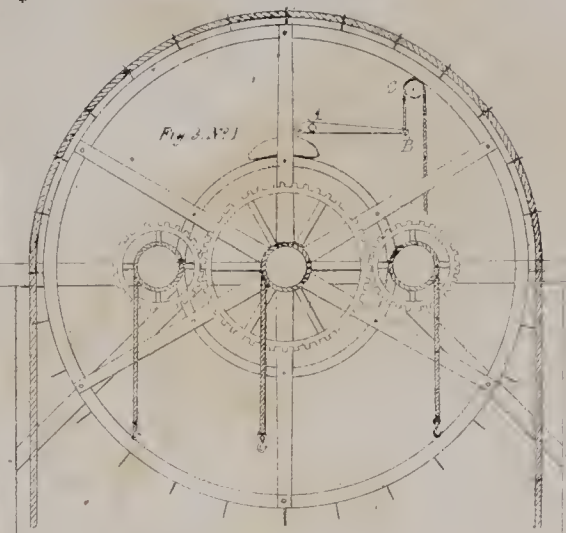


Fig 3. A^o 2

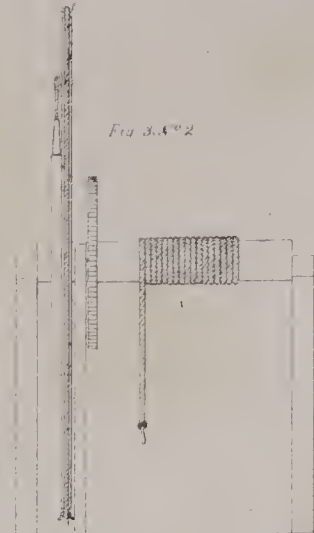


Fig 3. A^o 3

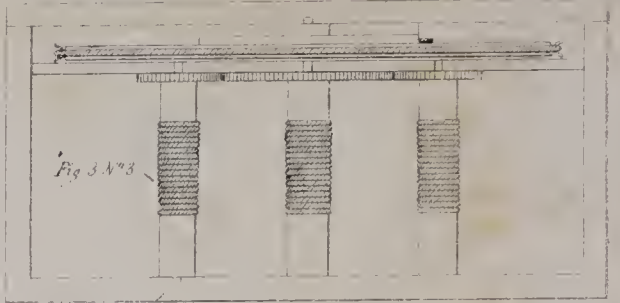


Fig 6

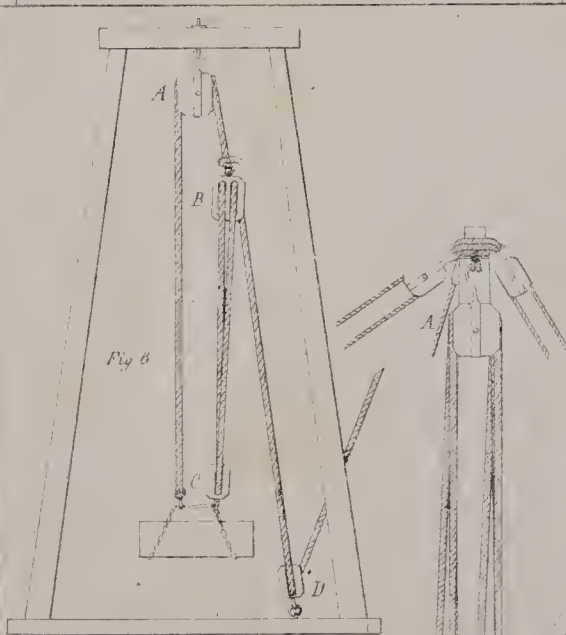


Fig 7

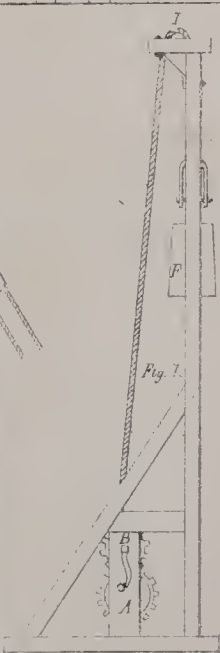


Fig 8

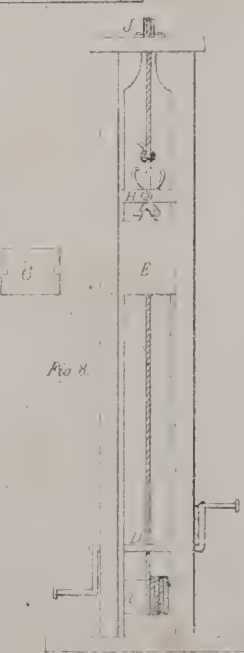


Fig 5

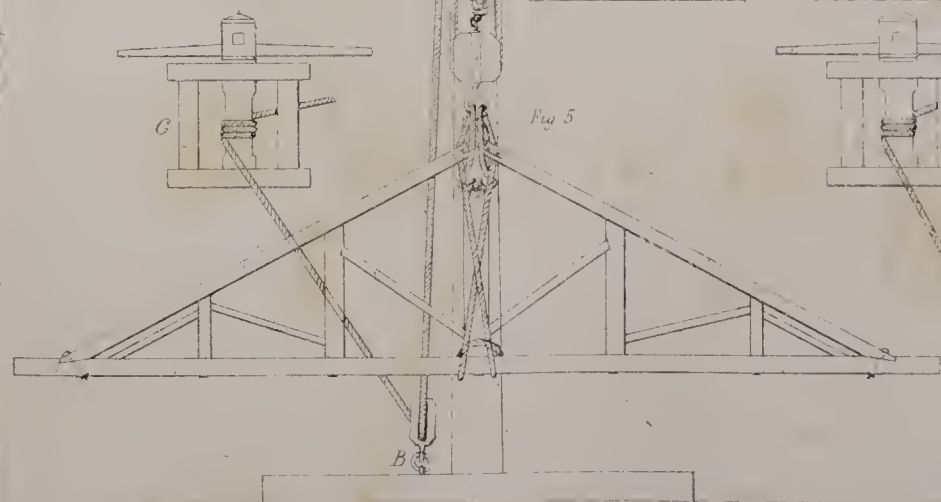


Fig 1

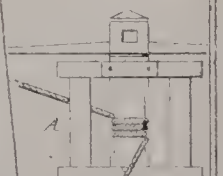
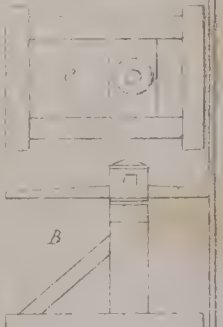
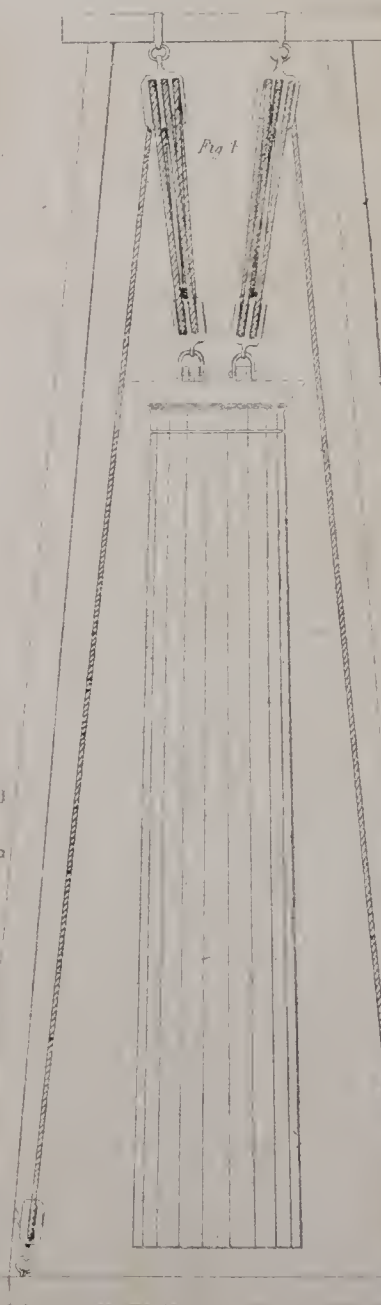


Fig 2 N°1



Fig 1 N°2

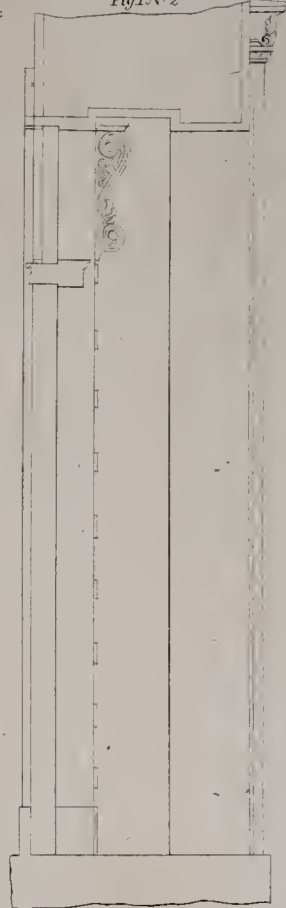


Fig 1 N°1

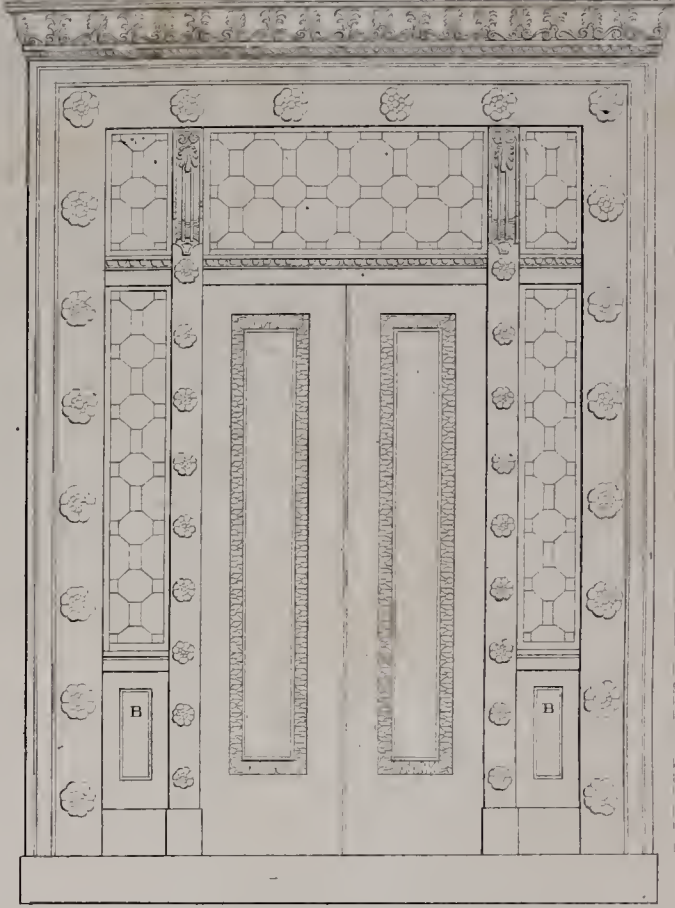
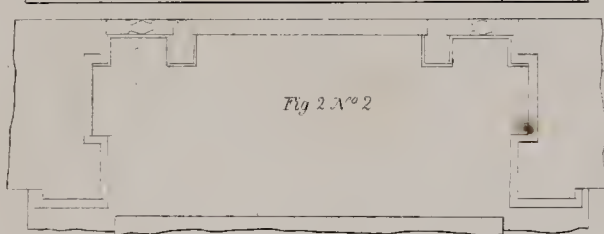
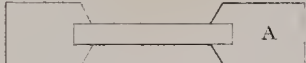


Fig 2 N°2



A



C

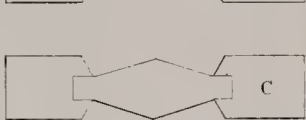


Fig 1 N°3

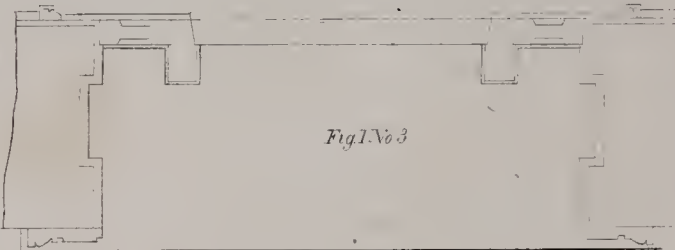


Fig 4

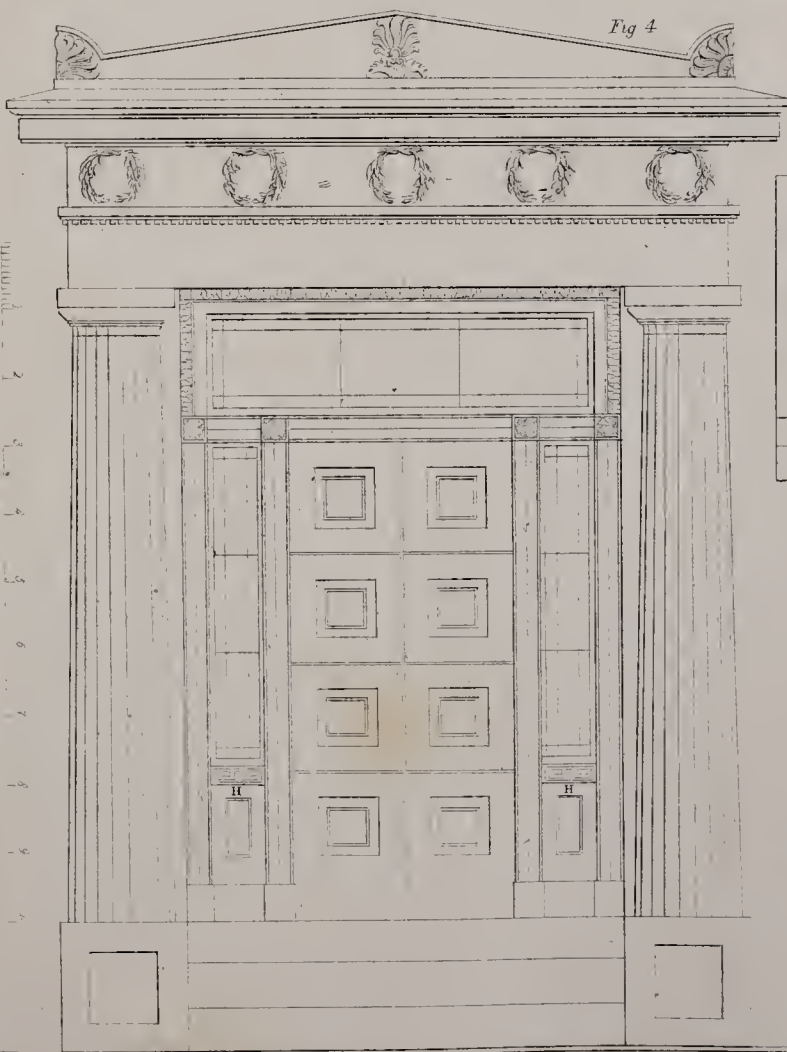
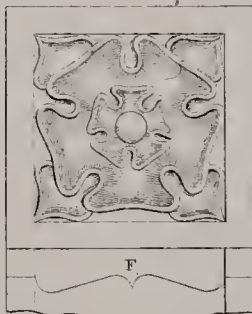
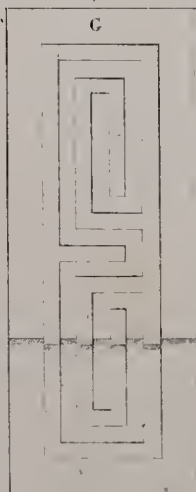


Fig 3



F

C



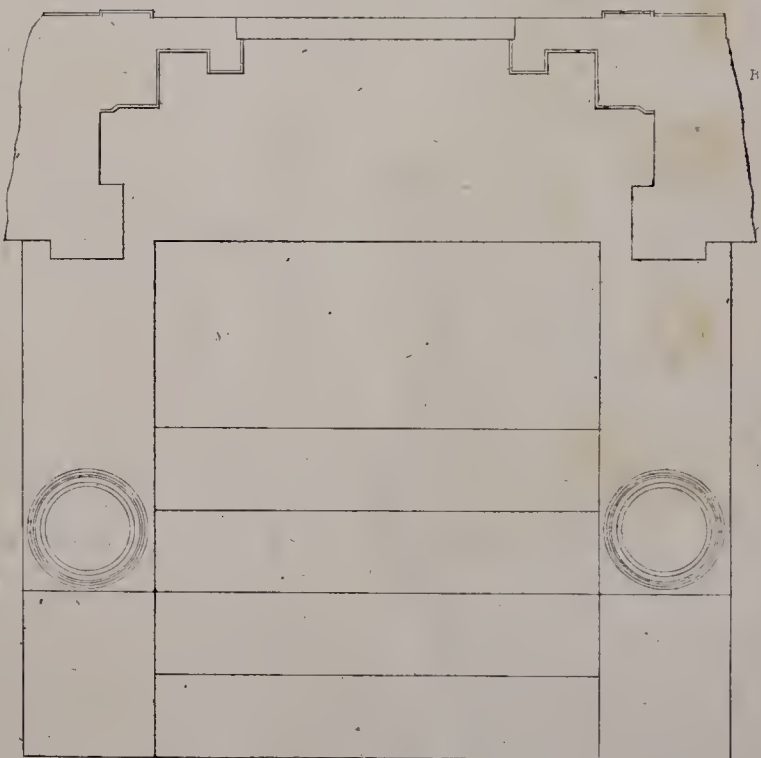
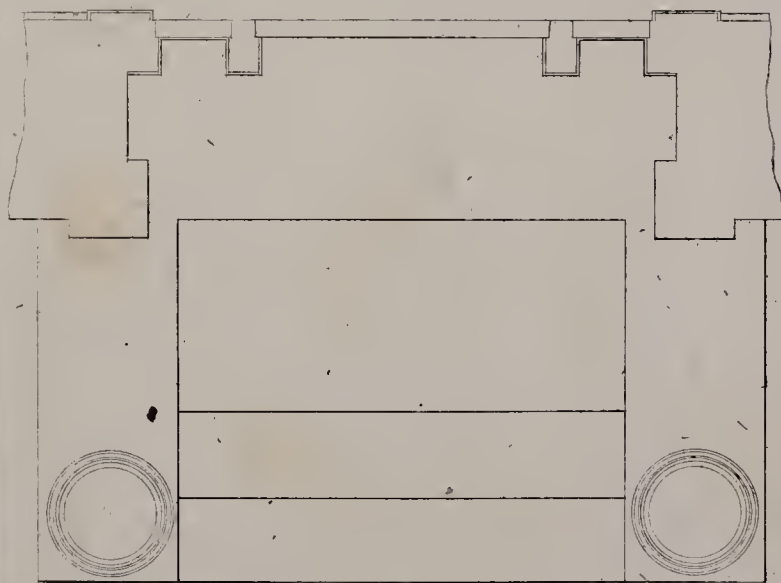
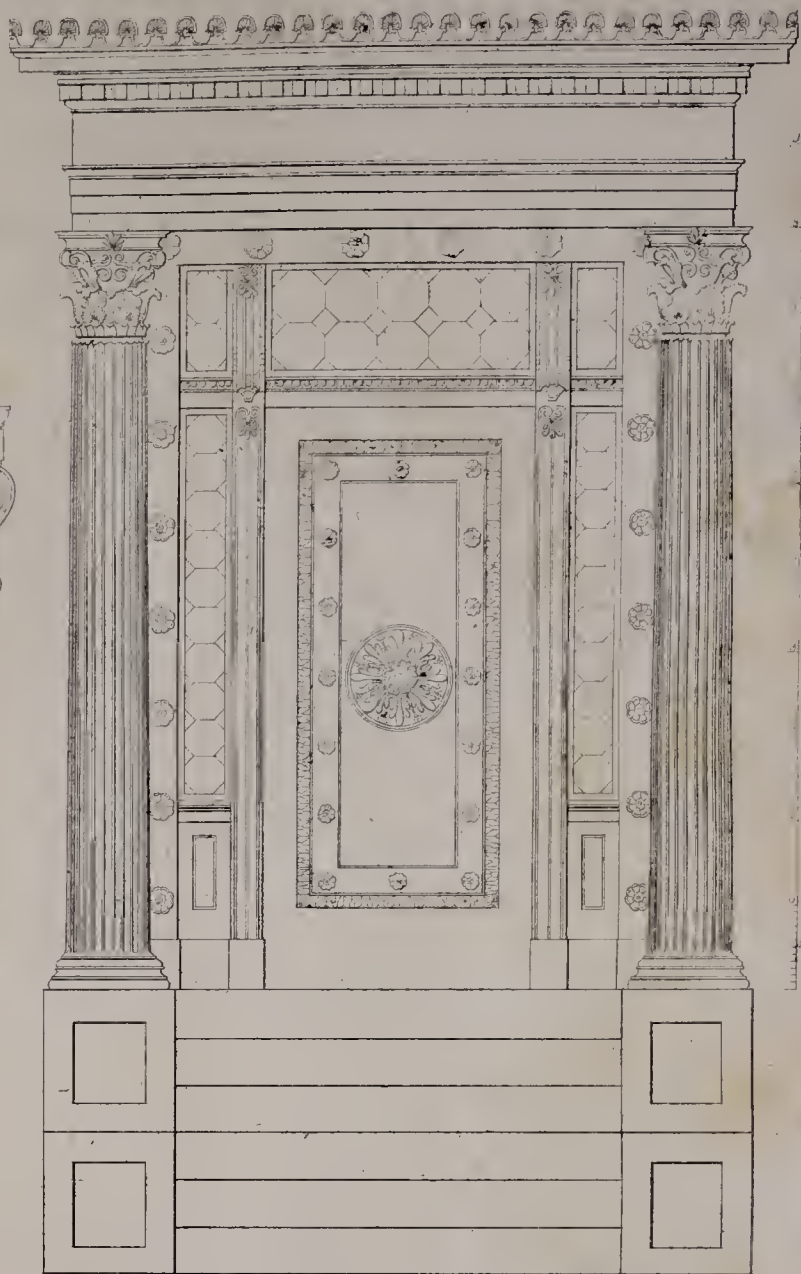
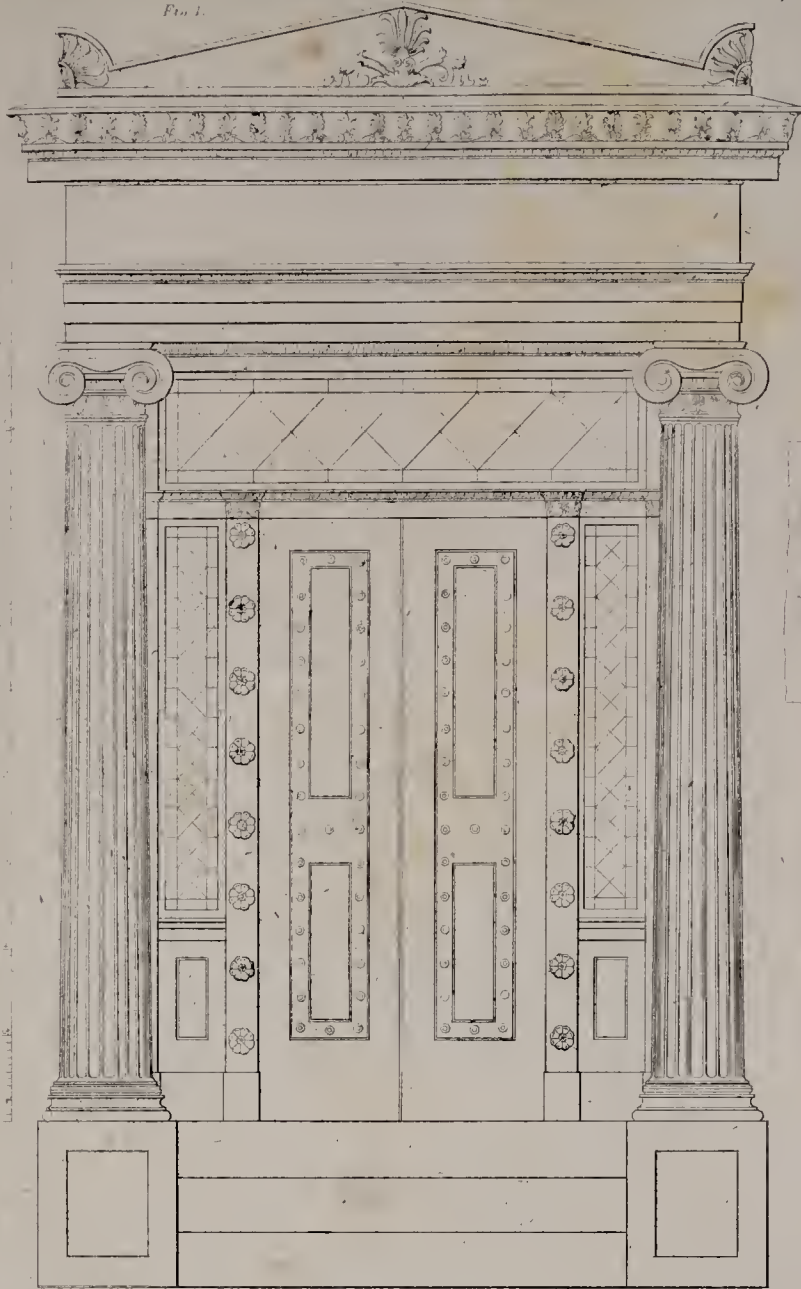


Fig. 2

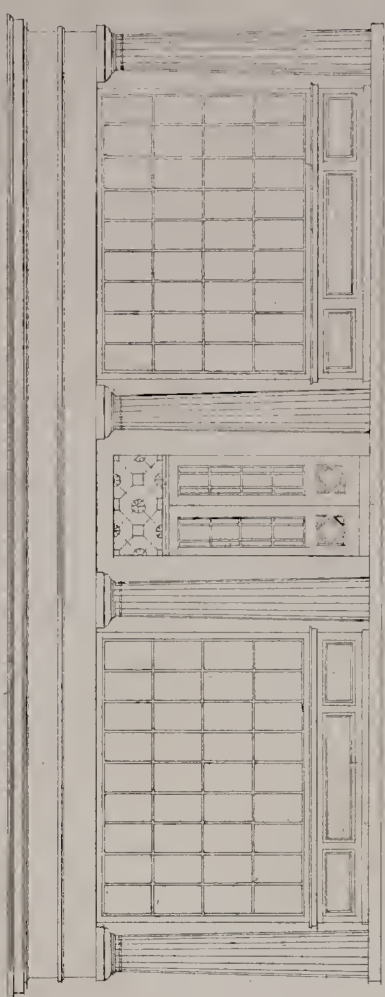


Fig. 3

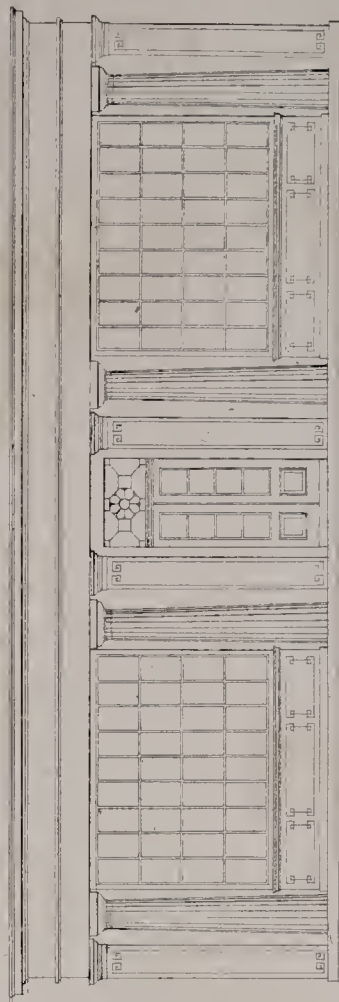


Fig. 5

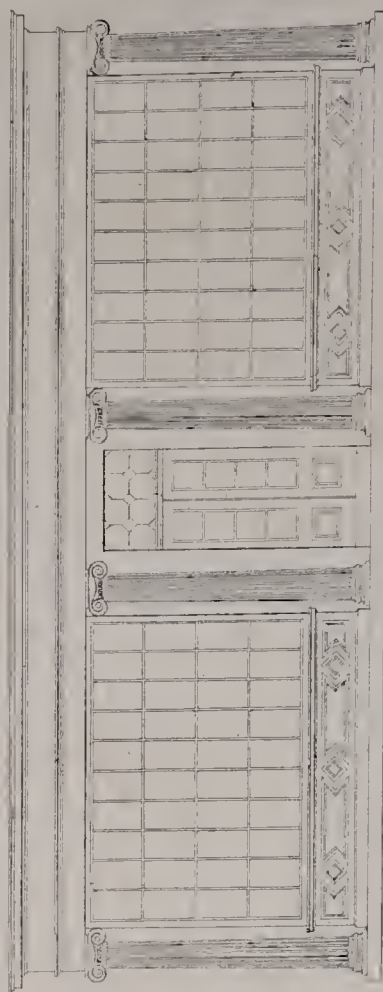


Fig. 6

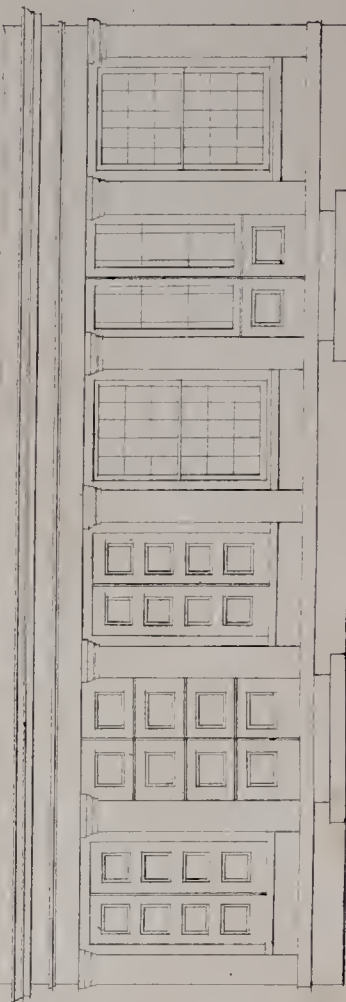


Fig. 1

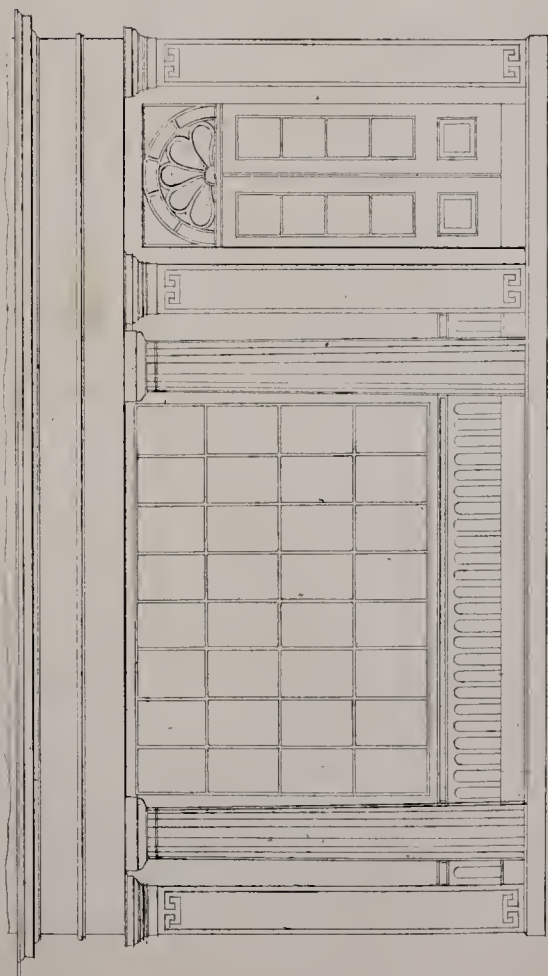


Fig. 4

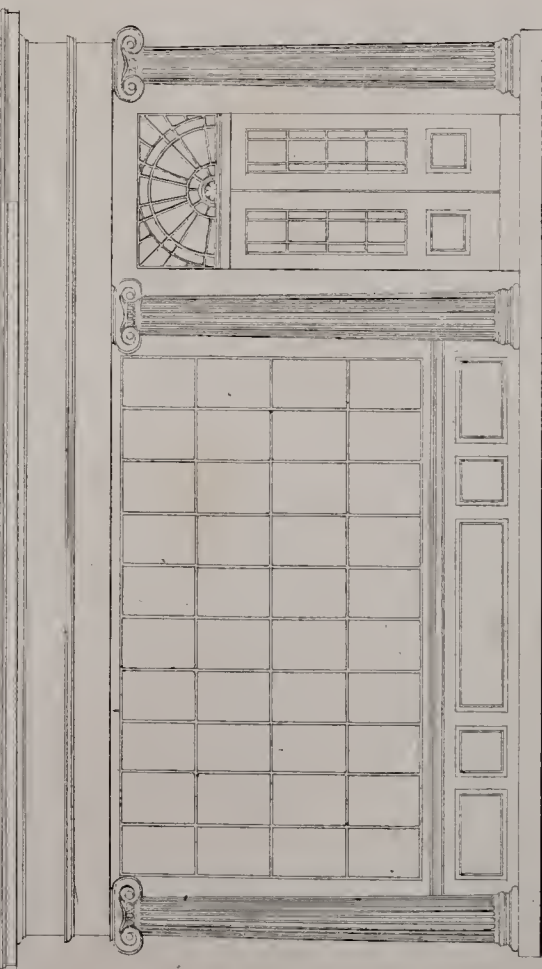


Fig. 7

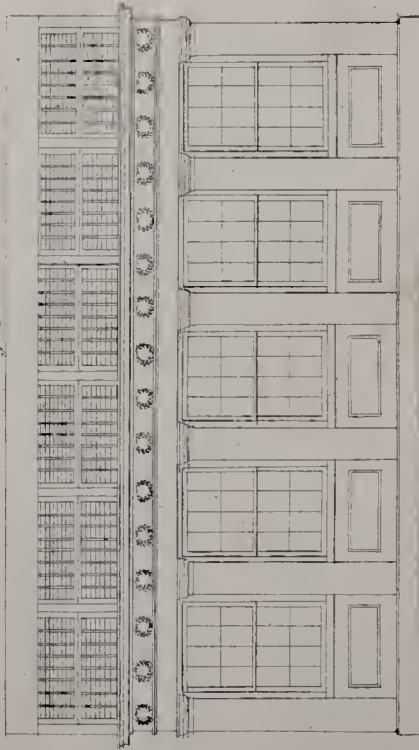
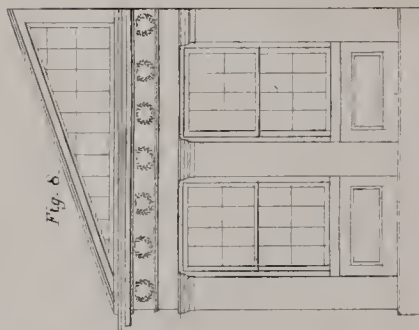


Fig. 8



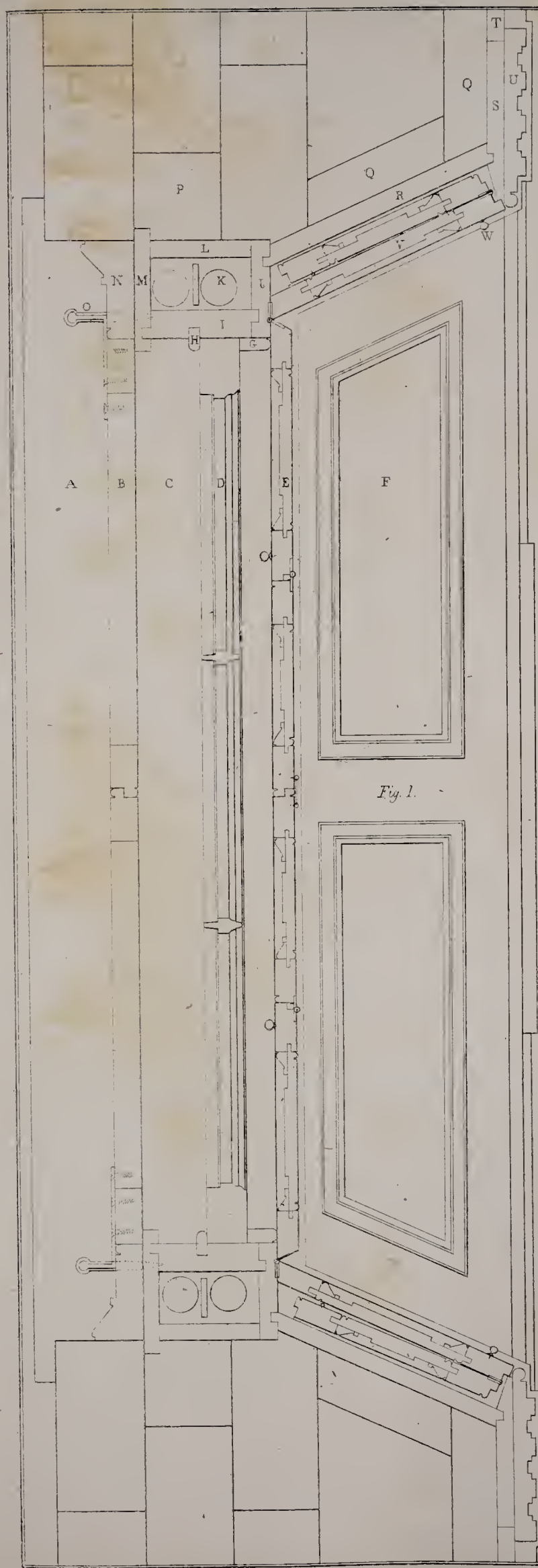


Fig. 1.

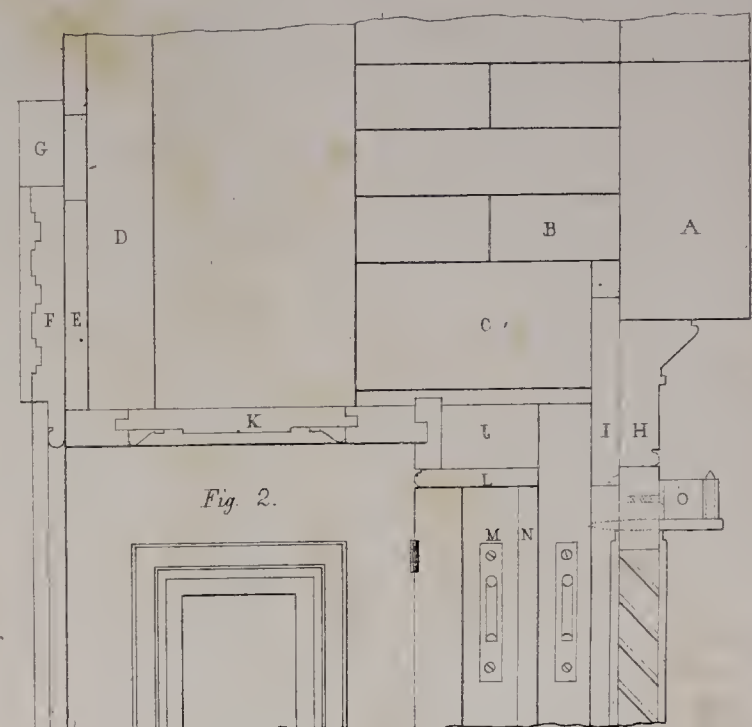


Fig. 2.

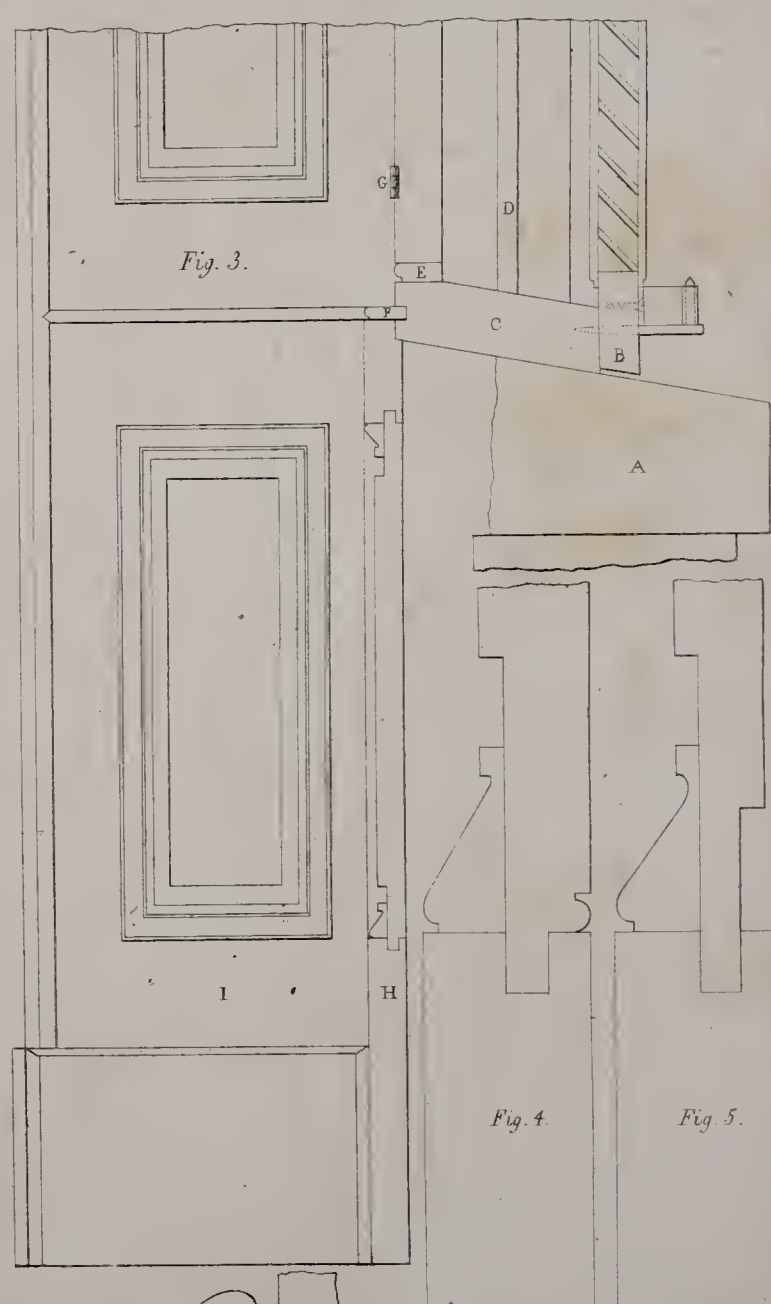


Fig. 3.

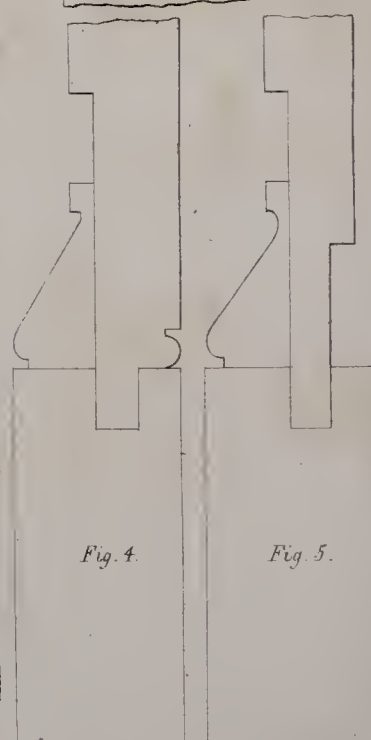


Fig. 4.

Fig. 5.

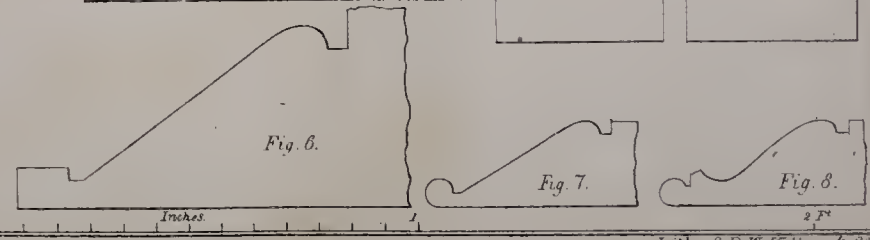


Fig. 6.

Fig. 7.

Fig. 8.

Inches

Fig. 1

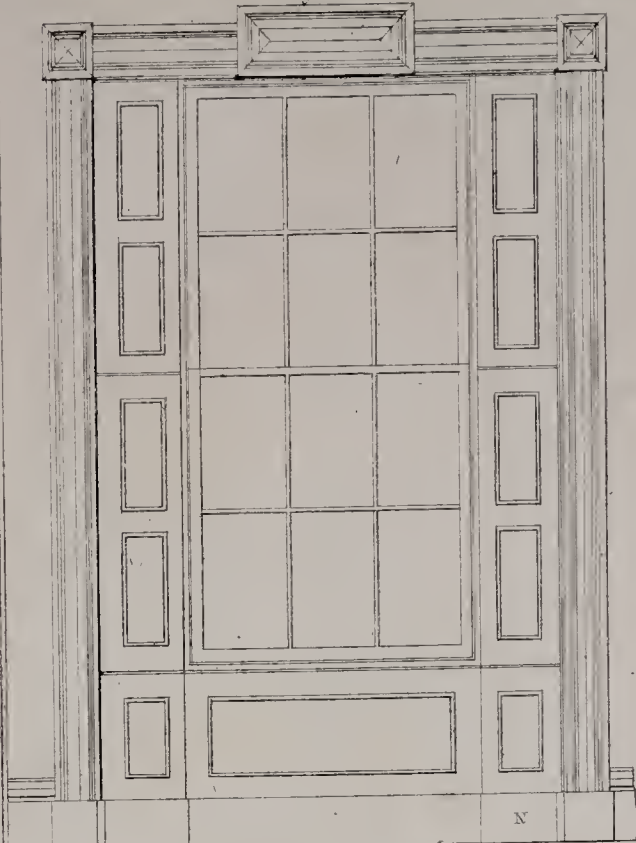


Fig. 2

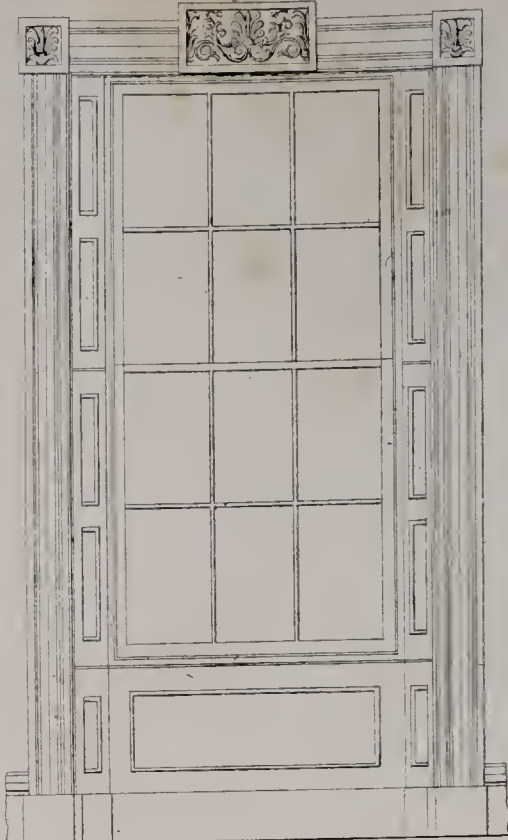


Fig. 3

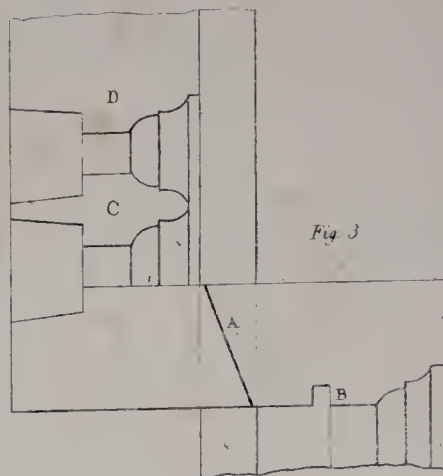


Fig. 4

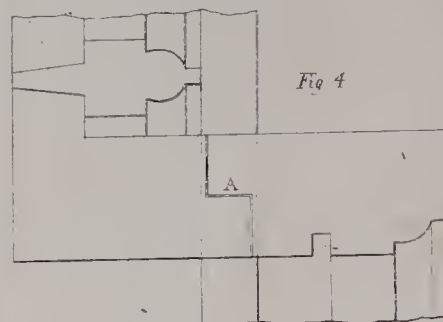


Fig. 5.

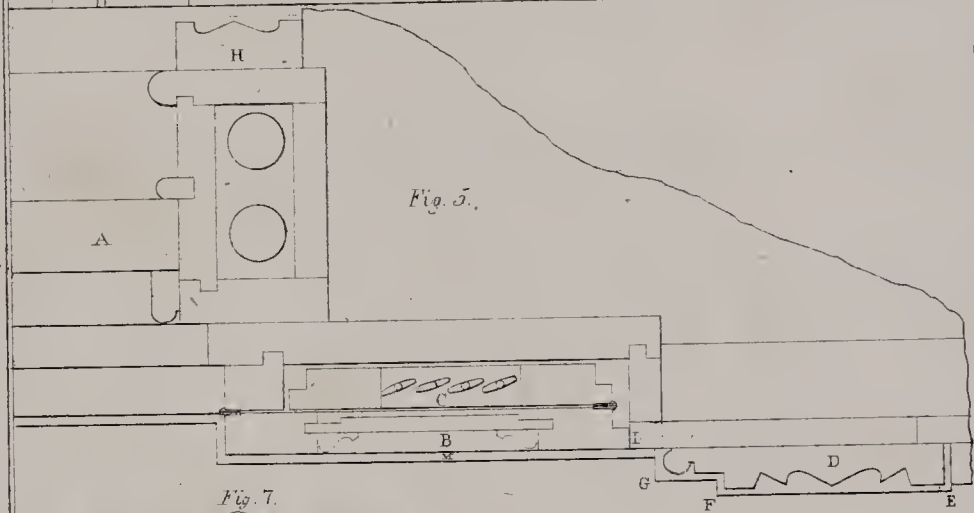


Fig. 6.

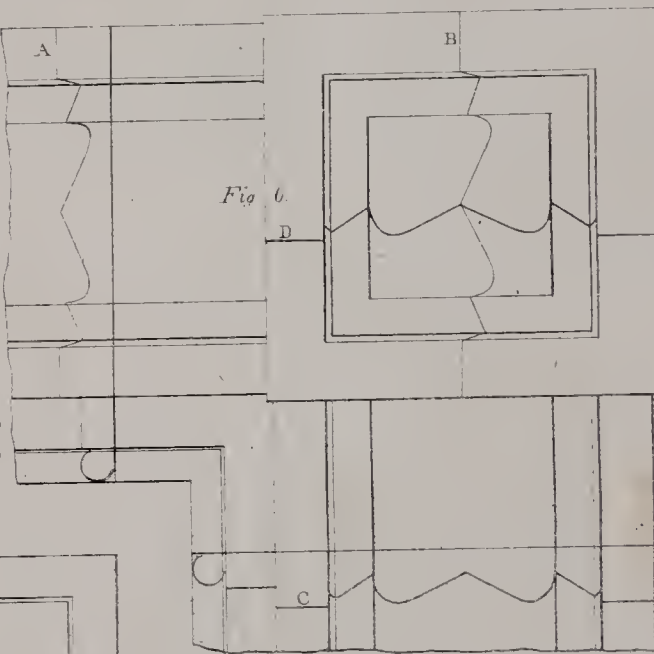


Fig. 7.

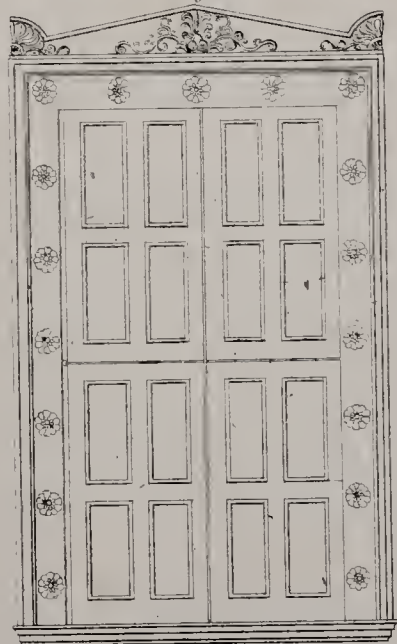


Fig. 8.

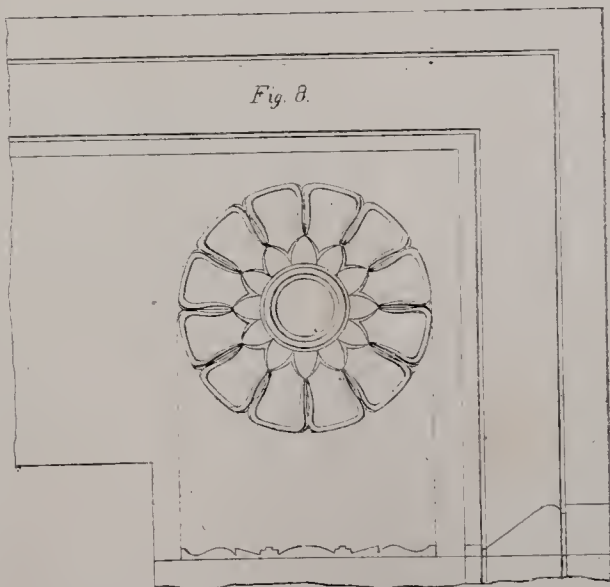


Fig. 9.

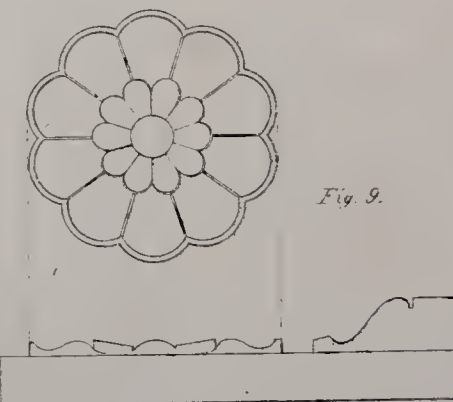


Fig. 10.

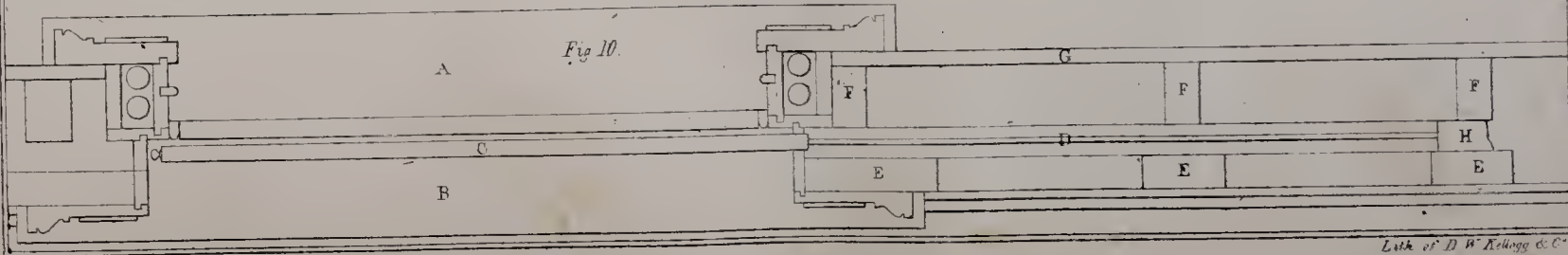


Fig. 1.



Fig. 2.

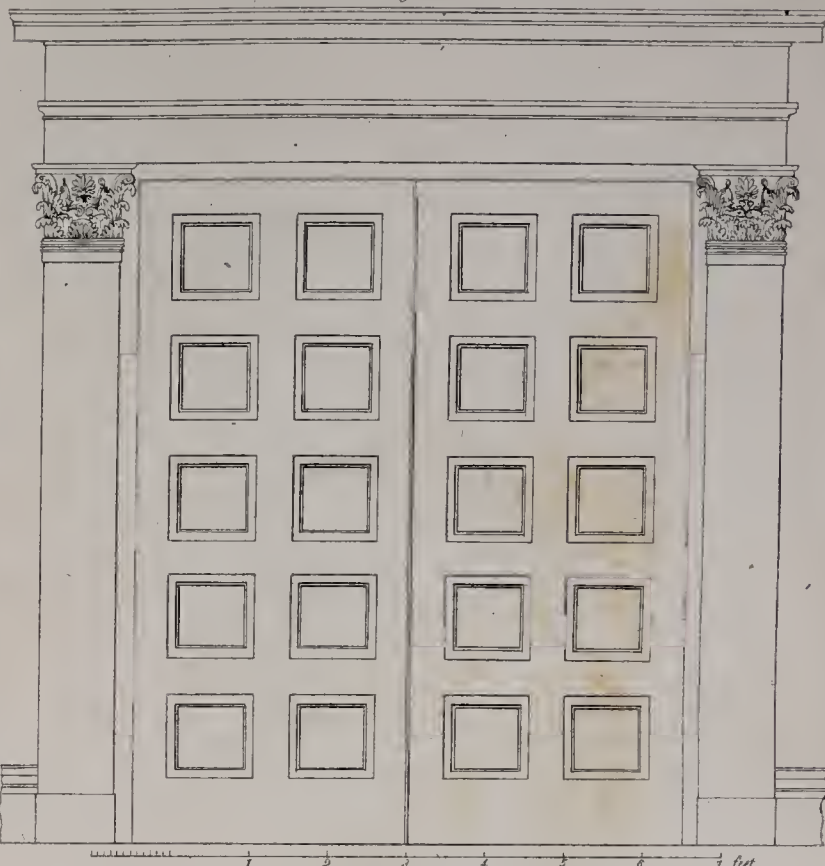


Fig. 3.

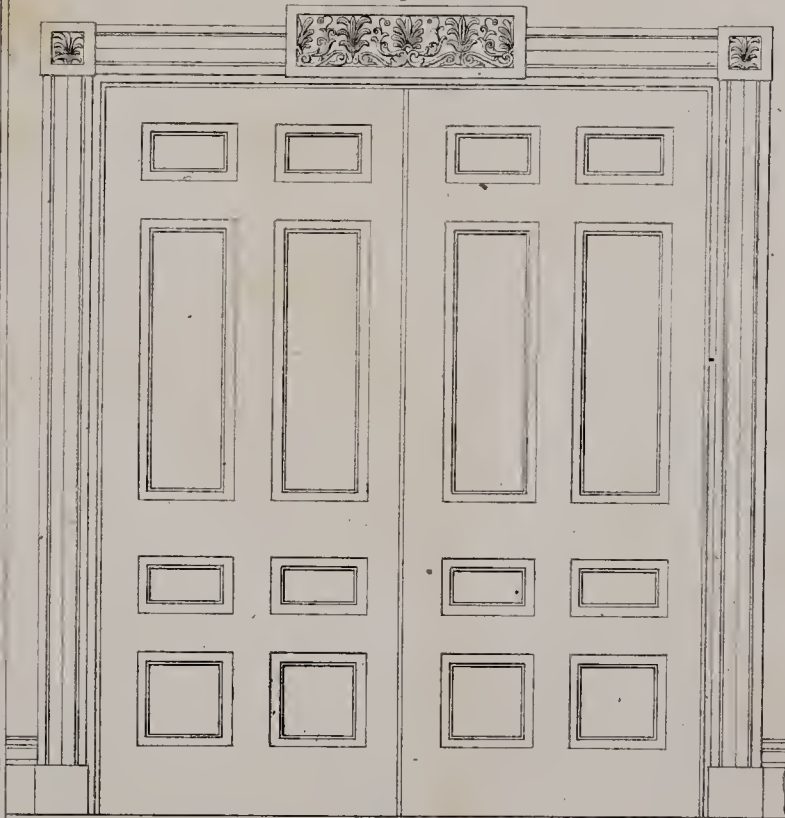


Fig. 4.

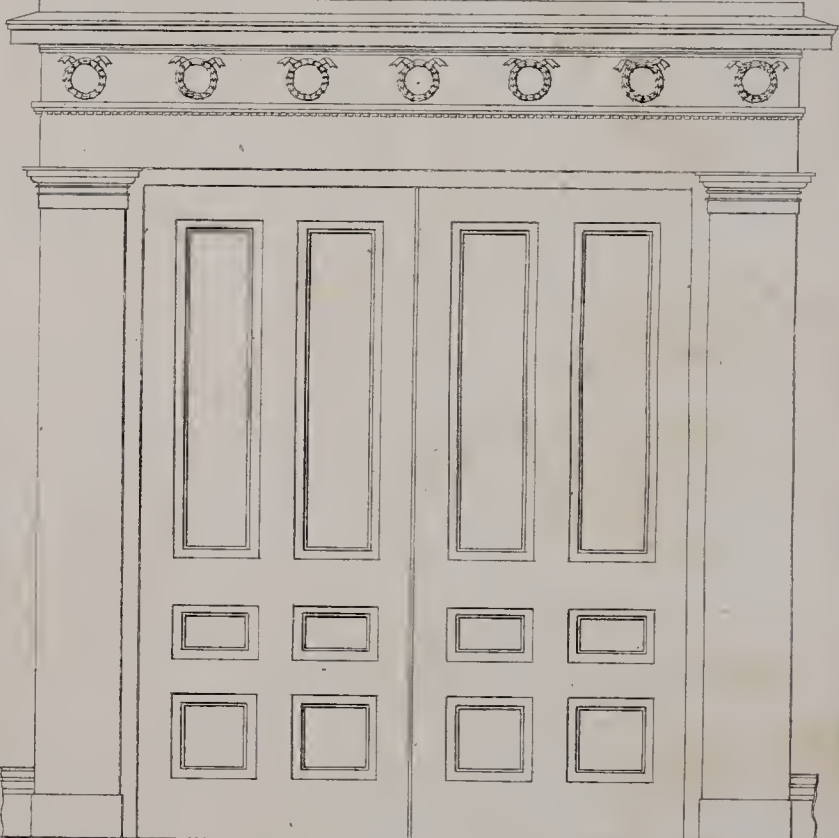


Fig. 5.

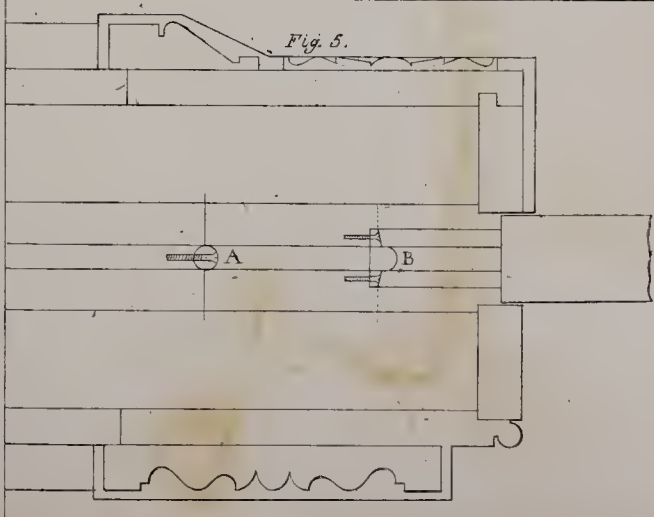


Fig. 6.

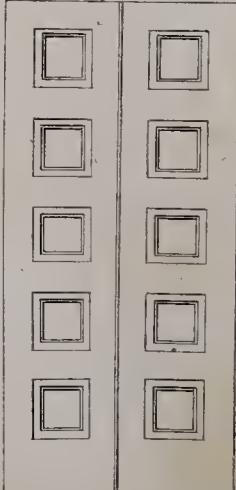


Fig. 7.

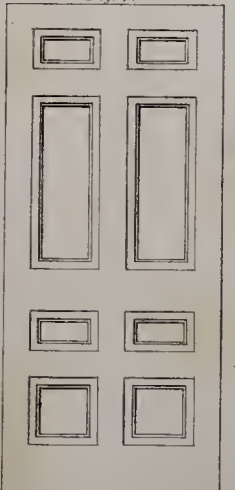


Fig. 8.

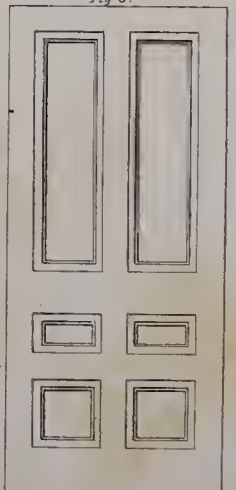
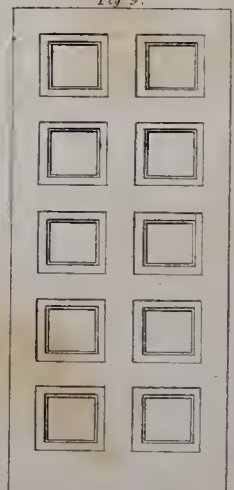
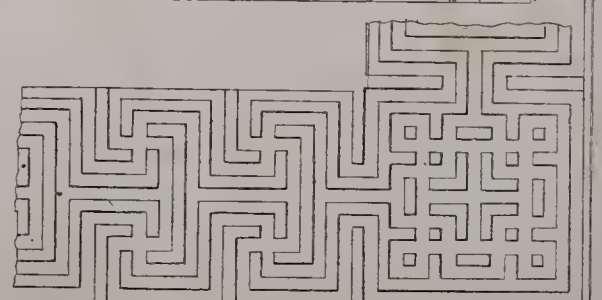
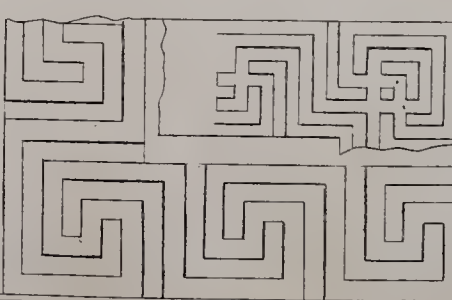
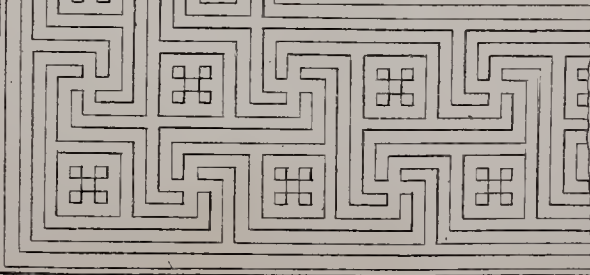
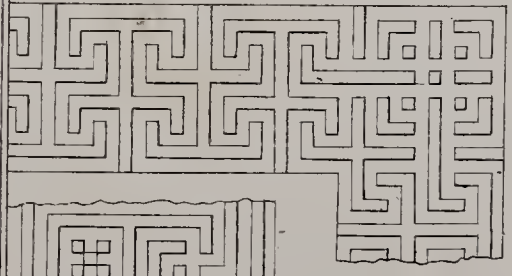
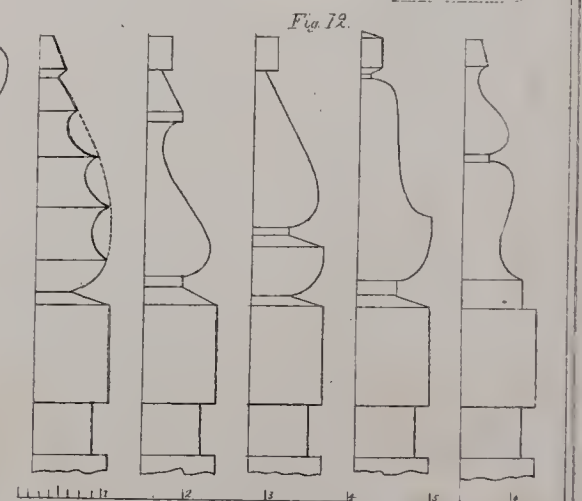
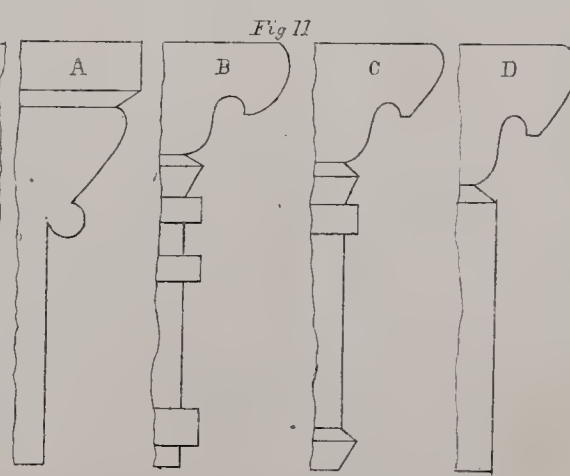
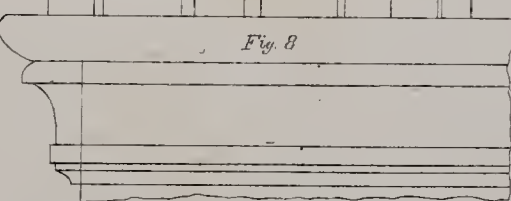
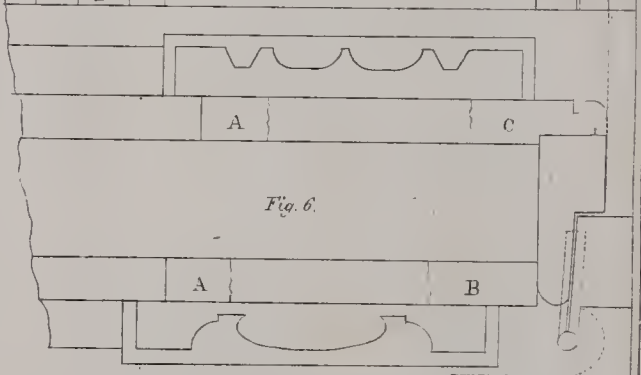
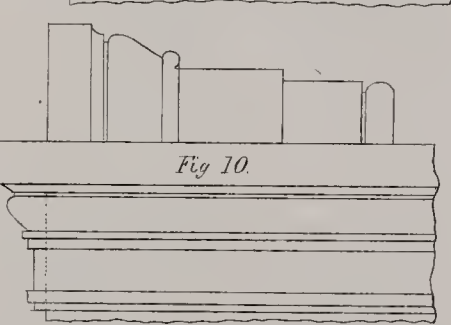
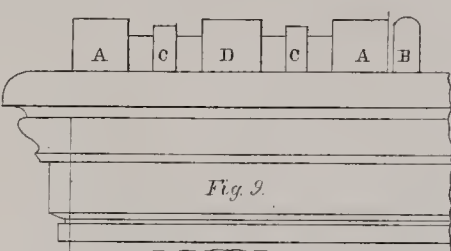
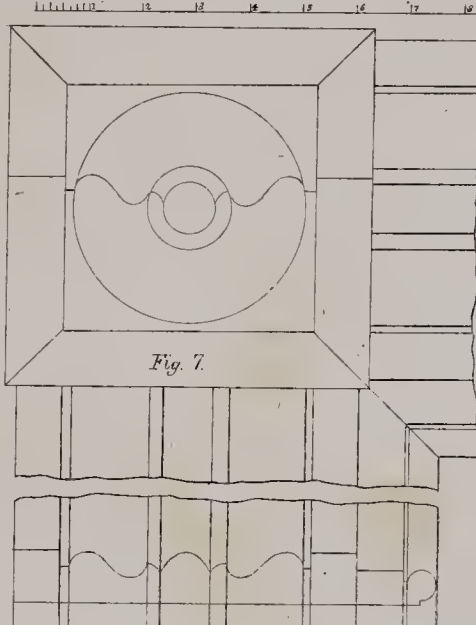
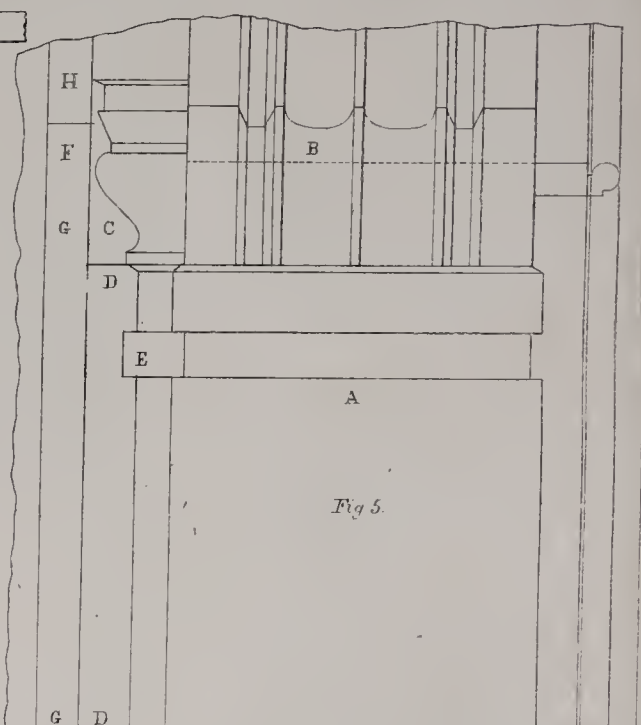
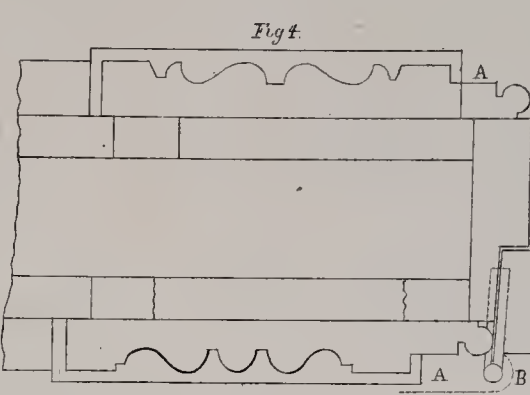
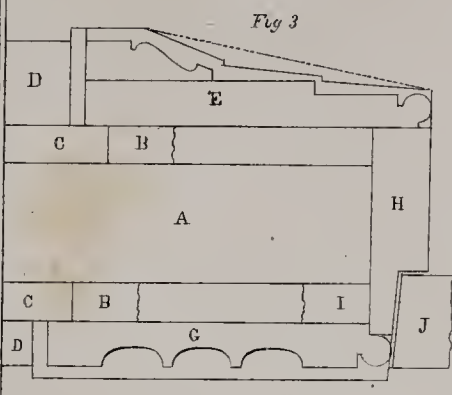
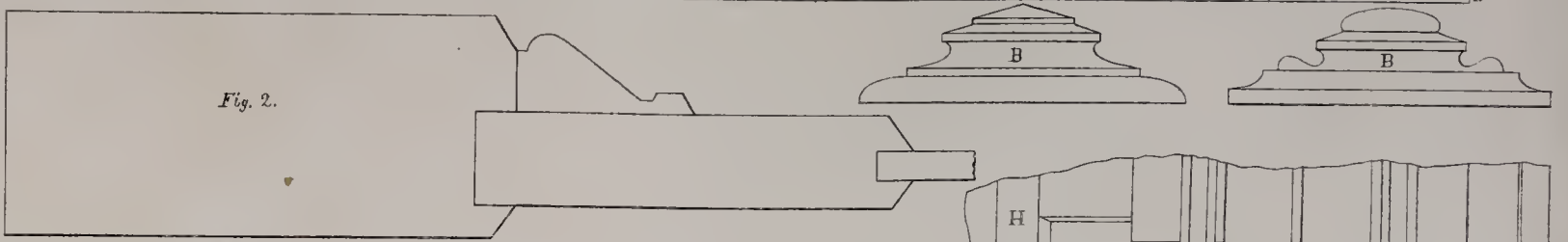
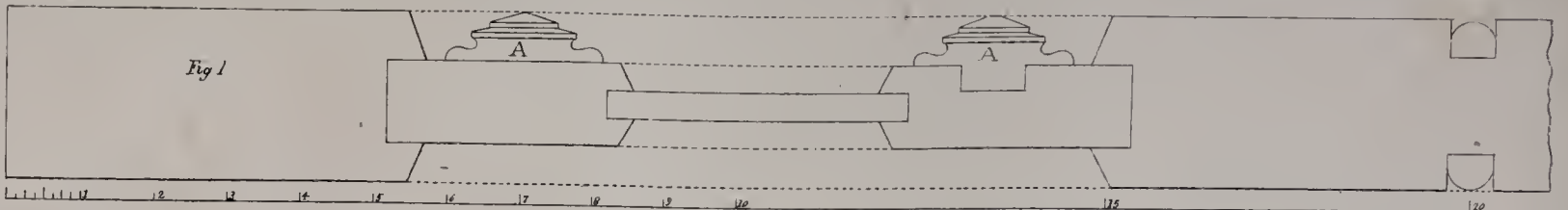


Fig. 9.







12	7)123(17
10-3	7
120	53
3	49
123 inches	4

Thus we find the number of steps to be seventeen and a trifle over, but as we must not have a fractional part, therefore the step must be over seven inches in height; we will proceed thus;

17)123(7.23
119
40
34
60
51

We find the height of the step to be $7\frac{23}{100}$ inches; being a trifle less than $7\frac{1}{4}$. This will answer very well; but, if we are still confined for room on the plan, we may throw the semi-circumference round the newel into winders.

The breadth of stair-cases may be from four to fifteen feet or more according to the destination of the building; but if the steps be less than two feet six inches in length, they become inconvenient for the passing of furniture, as is generally the case in small houses.

When the height of the story is very high, resting-places become necessary. In high stories, that admit of sufficient head-room and where the plan or area of the stairs is confined, the stairs may make two revolutions in the height of the story; that is the ascendant or descendant may go twice round the newel or well-hole and this becomes necessary; otherwise the steps would be enormously high, or extravagant floor-room must be allowed for the stairs.

In laying out the rise and run for a stair case, there will be one more riser in number than treads, that is by not counting the upper one or landing which forms that part of the floor; It may not be amiss to give an example here for a principal building, in order to show the number of steps and risers both in the grand and common stair-case.

For this purpose, suppose the story of a house to be twelve feet one inch high from floor to floor, and we may have sixteen feet ten inches for the run of the grand stair-case, the number of steps of the grand stair case to be twenty in number, that is there will be twenty risers and nineteen treads, what will be the breadth of the treads and risers.

Now the height of the story 12 feet 1 inch being reduced to inches is 145, and the run, which is 16 feet 10 inches being reduced to inches gives 202, and first dividing by 19.—for the run

19)202(10.63	divide by 20)145(7.25
19	140
120	50
114	40
60	100
57	100
3	

We find the breadth of the tread to be $10\frac{63}{100}$ inches and for the riser $7\frac{25}{100}$ inches.

Now for the stair-case of that for the servants, we cannot have for instance but twelve feet nine inches for the run, and of course the height will be the same as in the former; therefore we must have a less number of steps to bring it into proportion.

For example let there be eighteen risers in number and seventeen treads.

The run which is 12 feet 9 inches being reduced to inches is 153 and thus

17)153(9	18)145(8.05
153	144
	100
	90
	10

Which gives 9 inches for the breadth of the tread; and $8\frac{5}{100}$ for the riser being large 8 inches. This will make a good proportion.

In laying out the rise of a stair-case, we may divide the whole height from floor to floor into equal parts on the string boards, then when the strings are set up level at their proper places, scribe off the thickness of one tread on the lower step or curtail, and this will drop it down the thickness of one at the upper part of the landing, so when the steps are put together they will be all equal in height. A farther description of laying out and putting up stair-cases will be described hereafter.

HAND-RAILING.

"The art of forming Hand-rails round circular and elliptic well-holes, without the use of the cylinder, is entirely new. Mr Price, the author of 'The British Carpenter,' is the first who appears to have had any idea of forming a wreath-rail. Subsequent writers have contributed little or nothing towards the advancement of this most useful branch of the Joiner's profession and have contented themselves with the methods laid down by Price, which were uncertain in their application; and, consequently, led to erroneous results in practice.

The first successful method of squaring the wreath, upon Geometrical principles, was invented and published by Peter Nicholson, in 1792 in a work called 'The Carpenter's New Guide,' a book well known to architects and workmen. No previous author seems to have had any idea of describing the section of a cylinder through any three points in space making a mould to the form of the sec-

tion, and applying it to both sides of the plank, by the principles of solid angles so that by cutting away the superfluous wood, the piece thus formed might have been made to range over its plan.

Since the first invention of the method, the author's experience and researches have produced many essential requisites, which were not thought of at first; so that this branch, as here presented, is now much improved.

The principle of projecting the rail furnishes the workman with a method by which he can ascertain, with great precision, the thickness of the plank out of which the rail must be cut. To do this in the most convenient way, the diagram must be made to some aliquot portion of the full size which will supercede the necessity of laying it down on a floor.

It must however, be observed that the thickness of stuff found by this method is what will completely square the wreath or piece. But as the rail is reduced from the square to an oval or elliptic section, much thinner stuff may be made to answer the purpose; so that, generally for rails of common size of 2 or $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches thick, instead of requiring a four inch, when one of two and a half may be made to answer the purpose."

NOTE.—Since I commenced compiling this work, a number of young builders have requested me to make some of my drawings full size, I have therefore added two double plates, on which a part of the examples are described sufficiently large for practice.

TO DRAW THE SCROLL FOR A HAND-RAIL, AND THE MOULDS FOR EXECUTING THE SAME, AND ALSO THE CURTAIL-STEP (PLATE 20.)

Fig. 1. Shows a method for drawing the scroll to a hand rail, and curtail step, to a full size for practice. The full lines that are drawn represents that part of the scroll, and the dotted lines the curtail step.

To draw the scroll,—Divide the line A B the width of the scroll, into nine equal parts. Draw A D and B C at right angles with A B, and make each equal in length to one of the nine parts; join C D, and also the diagonal line B D.—Draw E F perpendicular to A B, and at a distance from A of four of the nine parts into which A B is divided. Draw the semi-circle E F O. Thence draw the diagonals E O G and F O H cutting the diagonal B D in the point O. Join G H, H I, I J and J K; Then will E F G H I J K be the centres for describing the scroll and curtail step.

Then from the centre E, with the distance E B, in your compasses, describe the quadrant B L. Then from the centre F, with the radius F L describe the quadrant L D; From the centre G with the distance G D, describe the quadrant D M; From the centre H with the distance H M describe the quadrant M N. From the centre I with the distance I N describe the quadrants N P. From the centre J with the distance J P describe the quadrant P Q. Then from the centre K with the distance K Q describe the arc at R; which finishes the outer spiral of the scroll.

Thence set off the bigness of the rail, from B to S on the line A B.

Again, from centre E with the distance E S in your compasses describe the quadrant S T. From the centre F with the radius F T describe the quadrant T U. Then from the centre G with the distance G U describe the arc at R, which will complete the inner spiral and terminate in the point R as required.

The curtail step is described in the same manner, and from the same centres, as that of the scroll, which the lines on the face of the curtail terminates at W W, where there is two grooves cut out by running a saw through to let the ends of the veneers which bend around on the face or surface of the riser, as represented by the two dotted lines, in the diagram of the figure.—XXXX Shows the bigness of the newel post; and YYYYY the bigness of the mortise that is made through the step, which should also run through the floor, and a mortise made through the tenon of the newel on the underside of the floor and keyed, to draw the step down close to the floor. The circles that are described in the diagram of the figure represent the balusters; The different sections of the remaining part of the curtail step is plainly drawn showing the manner in which it is put together; it will not require any further explanation: therefore we will proceed to describe the face mould for the scroll of the hand-rail.

To Draw the Face Mould, for Squaring the Twisted part of the Scroll. Let A A A in (fig. 2) be the pitch board; and A the angular point as standing over the front edge of the riser of the curtail-step, at the bottom. Let the line A B A be continued to 14 until it meets the line L 14 in (fig. 1.) Then in (fig. 1) let the line B C be produced until it meets the line L 14 also; and divide this line into any like number of parts: commencing at B then 1, 2, 3, &c. to 14 as represented in the diagram of the figure. Then draw lines through these several divisions parallel to A B, until they meet the diagonal line A B A in (fig. 2).—Thence on the diagonal line A B in (fig. 2) draw lines B S, 111, 222, 333, &c at right angles with A B.

Then take B S the bigness of the rail from (fig. 1) and set it off from B to S in (fig. 2.) take also the distances 111, 222, 333, 444, &c from (fig. 1.) and set them off from 111, 222, 333, 444, &c in (fig. 2.) When you have got all these distances or ordinates transferred from one to the other; then with a pencil trace out the curve through the several points in (fig. 2) which will give the form of the face mould as required.

To draw the falling mould of the scroll as in (fig. 3.) This figure or mould is drawn on a smaller scale, being only one third of the size of those of (figures 1 and 2.) To draw this mould let B V in (fig. 3) be made equal in length to the stretch out, from B around to V in (fig. 1) the scroll. Then let B V in (fig. 3) be divided into three equal parts; and from the first division at 1, lay on the pitch board as represented at A A A. From B raise a perpendicular to C. Thence divide 1 C and 1 V each into a like number of equal parts, and form the curve by the intersection of lines. Then set down the thickness of the rail from V to D and from A to E, and join E D. This mould should be made of thick paper, and bent around the scroll to form the curve of the upper edge of the rail. This being done and the upper edge of the rail squared, the curve of the lower edge may be obtained by gauging.

Fig. 4 shows a method of getting a scroll out of a solid piece of wood, having the grain of the wood run in the same direction with the rail; which is far preferable to any of the other methods.

To square out this scroll. Let AAAA be the block of wood of a suitable breadth and thickness, and let the underside of it be faced over and one edge be made square. Then let the block of wood be set up on the bench in a raking position, and place your pitch board under it as represented at EEE, DD represents the line of the bench on which it is placed.

Then with a pair of compasses scribe through from F to G, and work off the corner or the angle AFG on the lower part. This being done and the underside of the scroll FG being faced over true and square, place the pattern of the scroll as in (fig. 1) on the under side and mark all around it, and thence square up from the underside, instead of drawing a face mould, and working by it from the upper side. This method is much quicker and as accurate. When you have got the scroll squared up around perpendicular to the plan. Then bend around your falling mould, so as to have BC in (fig. 3,) stand perpendicular to BC in (fig. 4.) or stand perpendicular to B on the plan in (fig. 1.) If the scroll is required to be worked out of thinner stuff. Let the joint be made and glued together at *aa* in (fig. 1.) And in this case it is not necessary to draw the face mould farther than at *aa* in (fig. 2,) scrolls are frequently made in this way.

Fig. 5 shows an elevation of a scroll, curtail step, balusters, &c. and two designs for brackets. The rail of stairs should be squared out, and the joints all made and cut to a length, before it is rounded or moulded. This being done and spaced off for the balusters or plumbed up, square across upon the under side of the rail, and then lay your pitchboard on as represented at A, and with a pencil mark down upon the side of the rail, which will be a guide to you in boring, or to mortice by. B shows the manner in which the base makes a finish under the string board of the stairs.

Fig. 6 shows the form of a rail screw, which secures the joints and screws them tight together. The screw is let into the centre of the rail, and the nuts are let in on the under side within about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches of the joint or shoulders of the rail. The nut at A is made square, and should be let into the mortice without much play, so as not to have it turn around within the rail. B is made round with creases cut into it, for the purpose of turning the nut on or off within the rail. C shows the plan of the same nut.

TO FIND THE MOULDS FOR EXECUTING A HAND RAIL ON A SEMI-CIRCULAR PLAN WITH EIGHT WINDERS; AND ALSO THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE CARRIAGE OF THE STAIR. PLATE 21.

Let ABC (fig. 1) be the plan of the eight winders, as described upon the floor over which the stair is to be built. The full line that is drawn ABC represents the concave side of the string-board. And the dotted line at DE represents the concave side of the hand rail, which projects over the vertical face of the string-board. FF the treads. GG risers. HH the falls or back risers, in which the bearers of the winders are framed. II bearers of the winders. J the middle bearer of a step.

Fig. 2 clearly shows the section of the stretch out of the eight winders as they would naturally appear when erected; and also one of the treads of the flyers both above and below the winders.

But before we proceed to lay out this stair-case and to draw the moulds for executing the hand rail &c; let us suppose it to be made to some aliquot portion of the full size. For instance let the treads of the flyers be equal to $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches in breadth and the rise or risers equal to $7\frac{3}{4}$ inches in height; and the breadth of the treads of those of the winders should be made equal to one half of the breadth of those of the flyers: that is, on the concave part of the well hole; and thus by placing two balusters into a tread of the flyers, and one in the winders of each tread. Then the balusters in the winders and flyers will be at equal distances from each other, which will give a much better appearance. Therefore we will suppose the breadth of the winders to be $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches, on the concave part of the well hole; and the height of the risers of course will be the same as those of the flyers. Now it becomes necessary to know how large the well hole must be in diameter to receive the eight winders; which may be found by the following operation. Thus $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8 = 42$ inches, the stretch out of the well hole, or the semi-circumference.

Then the circumference of the whole circle will be equal to 84 inches, and thus by (Art 13. section 1 of mensuration)

as 22 : 7 :: 84 :

7
22)588(26.72

44

148

132

160

154

60

44

16

Which we find the diameter to be $26\frac{7}{8}$ inches, being a trifle less than $26\frac{3}{4}$. Now the hand rail generally, projects over the string board from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch; which renders it necessary for us to know what the diameter is, and also the circumference of the concave part of the rail, or the convex circumference of the semi-cylinder, which is called the working cylinder, as represented in (fig. 10.)

Let us suppose the working cylinder of the rail to be $25\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter. Then we may find the circumference by (Art. 12 of mensuration.)

7 : 22 :: 25.5 :

22
510
510
7)5610(80.14
56
10
7
30
28
2

Thus we find the semi-circumference of the cylinder to be $40\frac{7}{8}$ inches.

We will now proceed to describe the falling moulds, and also lay out the run and rise of the eight winders, and find what the length of the hypotenuse lines will be, of the string board, and that of the rail also.

First let a line be drawn upon a floor as ABC in (fig. 2); and make BC equal in length to the semi-circumference ABC in (fig. 1) which is equal to 42 inches. From C raise the perpendicular CD, and make it equal in height to the eight winders; which we suppose takes 62 inches. Draw the hypotenuse line AD. From B draw BE perpendicular to AC. Then will AE and ED be the length of the hypotenuse line of the two quadrants which is the length of the concave side of the string board AD. From A draw AF one of the treads or more; of the flyers draw DG also. And thence set off the width of the string board, from these lines down; and draw the lower line parallel to them and whenever these lines meet in their angular point, they form the curve by the intersection of lines, as represented, (which is called by workmen the *easing of the angle*.)

To construct the falling mould for the hand-rail. In (fig. 2) draw Lm parallel to AC; and make Lm equal in length to the stretch out of the dotted line ABC in (fig. 1,) which is $40\frac{7}{8}$ inches (as calculated heretofore.)

From m, draw the perpendicular mJ; and equal in height to the eight winders, or CD. Draw the hypotenuse line LJ and from n, draw no, perpendicular to Lm. Thence from L draw LN one of the flyers, or the pitch board, at the bottom, and one also at JhH, at the upper part of the windows. Then from L set off LM the bigness of the rail, and NO, JK and HI also, and draw OM, MK and KI; and wherever the angular points meet at LM and JK, form the curve by the intersection of lines, which will complete the falling mould.

To find the straight part of the rail, for the lower and upper wreath pieces or quadrants. From L let the line Lm be continued across the rail until it cuts the upper side at U.

Then UL will be the straight part of the rail for the lower wreath piece, and VK the upper one, which are the same as the straight part AD in (fig. 3) the plan, or AD in (fig. 4)

To find the height of the rail, that is for the lower and upper wreath pieces. At o, square across the rail, and divide it into two parts, at the centre Q. Thence draw PQ perpendicular to Lm, and continue the line PQ up to R, and draw RX at right angles with RP, cutting the joint of the straight part of the rail at X. Then when you come to draw the face moulds as in (figs. 5 and 7,) take the distance from R down to the under side of the rail at S, and set it off on the line RS in (fig. 7); and for the lower wreath piece, take the distance from P up to the upper side of the rail at T, and set it off on the line from P to B in (fig. 5.)

The reader in order to understand what has already been described, should recollect that the hypotenuse AD (fig. 2) (the string board) is longer than LJ of the hand rail.

It has been proved heretofore that the semi-circumference of the well-hole ABC is about two inches longer than that of the rail Lnm; the difference may not appear so much on the plate.

It may not be amiss to give an example here to show the learner how he may obtain the length of these hypotenuse lines AD and LJ; and also ascertain what their difference will be in the lengths. This may be done by extracting the square root of the sum of the two legs, or by the properties of the triangle in Trigonometry; or it may be performed by Logarithms which is the same thing. Each method will be fully explained hereafter in their proper place. The operation will be as follows

AC=42 in	CD=62 in	Lm=40.07 in	Jm=62 in
42	62	40.07	62
84	124	28049	124
168	372	1602800	372
1764	3844	16056049	3844
	1764		16056049
	56.08(74.88		54.49.60.49(73.82
	49		49
	144)708		143)549
	576		429
	1488)13200		1468)12060
	11904		11744
	14968)129600		14762)31649
	119744		29524

The length of AD we find to be $74\frac{8}{100}$ inches, and LJ being $73\frac{8}{100}$ gives nearly $1\frac{1}{16}$ difference.

For further particulars see (Art. 34 of mensuration.)

To find the face mould of the rail. Let ABG (fig. 3) be the plan of the concave side of the rail, and make AG equal in diameter to DE in (fig. 1.) let AF and BC be the thickness of the rail, and let AD the straight part of the rail be equal in length to UL or KV in (fig. 2.) Now it is not necessary to draw or make a pattern of only one of these quadrants, as in (fig. 3) and together with the straight part of the rail AD and EF. The most simple and the most convenient way to draw the face moulds at a full size for practice is as follows.

Take a board of a suitable breadth and length, face over one side and straighten one edge of it, of which the board should be of the breadth of GH in (fig. 4) or wider and equal in length to GG on the edge of the board. From thence square across this board at GH in (fig. 4) and place the pattern of the lower wreath piece (which you have already made as in fig. 3) on the board so as to have the two angular points of the pattern at B and D stand on the line GH. This pattern being tacked on the board, mark around it; you must be particular in marking the joints at BC, AF and DE when this is done take the pattern off the board, and then divide the quadrant AB, into any number of parts, as 1, 2, 3, &c. the greater the number the more correct will be the operation.

And thence set a gauge on the edge of the board GG so as to draw a line from the angular point B through NP up to B in (fig. 5.) Then set it across in A and run it from L through A M up to L in (fig. 5.) Then in F draw JKF to J. Then in D draw DI to D. Then in E draw HE to H also. Thence draw the lines through 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. the quadrant part of the rail.

And then square across the board at PH in (fig. 5.) Then take the distance from P up to the upper side of the rail at T in (fig. 2) and set it off from P up to B in (fig. 5.) And draw the hypotenuse line BH, and continue the line from B out to the edge of the board at G. Then take a thin board to make your pattern, and face it over, and straighten one edge, which should be equal in length to GH and HO the breadth. Then place the edge of the board, on the hypotenuse line GH, and tack it down to the other; and thence square across this board at the several divisions HDJLI 2 3 4 5 B and G. Then take the distance of G C in your compasses in (fig. 4) and set it off on the line from G to C in (fig. 5.) Then take the distance of BN in (fig. 4) and set it off from B to N in (fig. 5.) Then take the distances of 555, 444, 333, 222, 111 in (fig. 4) and set them off on the lines at 555, 444, 333, 222, 111 in (fig. 5.) Then take also LAM, JKF, DI and HE, from (fig. 4) and transfer them to LAM, JKF, DI and HE in (fig. 5.) Then in (fig. 5) draw the lines BC and DE, which will form the joints of the rail. And draw AD and EF the straight part of the rail. Then to draw the curve tack in brads at the several points AFM and at 11, 22, 33, 44, 55, BN and C and bend a thin slip of wood around, with a pencil trace out the curves which will complete the face mould for the lower wreath piece of the rail as required.

The face mould of the upper wreath piece of the rail, may be found in the same manner, as described in (figs. 6 and 7) only the pattern as in (fig. 4) must be turned over so as to have the straight part of the rail, come on the edge of the board as represented in the diagram of (fig. 6.) Then take the distance from R down to the under side of the rail at S in (fig. 2); and set it off from R to R in (fig. 7); and draw the hypotenuse line BT. Thence you may transfer the several ordinates from (fig. 6) to (fig. 7) as heretofore described in (figs. 4 and 5.) and complete it in the same manner.

Figs 8 and 9 shows the method of cutting the rail out of a plank; the plank should be from 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick, to square out the wreath pieces of the rail, when the rail is from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches in thickness. To do this let (fig. 8) be the plank; lay your pattern on the face, so as to have the angular points stand upon the edge at BD, and mark around it, then take the pattern off and turn the plank up, upon its edge as represented in [fig. 9.] Then lay your pitch board [of the winders] on at BLG, and draw the vertical line BL; and lay it on also at AD the straight part of the rail, and draw the vertical lines AE and DC. Thence turn your plank down upon the other side, and turn the pattern of the face mould over also, so as to have the angular points at BD in [fig. 8] stand on the edge of the plank at LC in (fig. 9). When the pattern is laid upon the face as above described, mark around it, as was done in [fig. 8]. And then cut away the superfluous wood on both sides of the rail, which is generally done by screwing the plank into a vice; then set a narrow frame saw in on the line BL in (fig. 9); two men are required to work it, one on each side of the plank, so that they may govern the saw, and work to the lines which are drawn on both sides of the plank. This being done and the rail trimmed down smooth to the lines, take the pattern of the falling moulds as in (fig. 2) which should be made of a thin board or thick paper, and bend it around on the concave side of the rail, and draw the upper side of the mould, and then the thickness of the rail may be obtained by gauging, after the upper side is squared around perpendicular to the plan, or the working cylinder.

It will be well however to leave the rail a trifle thicker at the ease-offs, that is where the straight part of the rail joins on to the wreath pieces. Then when the rail is screwed together, and set to its proper place; you may in a short time, with a coarse file work it down, so as to have the curve appear natural and easy. And the string board of the stair should also be worked in the same manner, since by thus doing you will be less liable to make cripples.

The greatest art of hand railing, depends on finding the section of a cylinder to pass through three given points on its surface, as heretofore described; therefore the reader is requested to understand this part thoroughly, before he actually commences his study upon hand rails; for if the principles are not comprehended he will always be in difficulties and liable to spoil his work.

Fig 10 shows, a section of the hand rail as formed to the *prismatic mould* or the *working cylinder*.

This method which was formerly practised for forming the wreaths and fitting the rail together, is now of no other use than merely to help the conception of the learner; therefore it may be better for the inexperienced to form his work to a working cylinder. To do this let the cylinder be made equal in length to the height of ten steps as represented in (fig. 10): and the convex circumference

equal to ten also, that is the semi-circumference shall be equal to the eight winders, as ABG in (fig. 3) together with the two fliers AH and GI, or FIAB in (fig. 10) shows one half of the plan of the vertical section; and CED and FGI the two fliers and JHLMNOPF the winders.

Fig. 11 shows the method of laying out the notch board of the stair case, in which the treads and risers enter.

Let AB and CD be the width of the board or plank, and from the under side AC gauge on one inch at the line EF; then lay your pattern or pitch board on as represented at GHI, and draw GH and HI; then slip the pattern along to O NP and draw ON and NP, and so on until the whole are drawn.

Then with a pair of dividers set off GM and HL, the thickness of the riser, and draw LM; then also set off HK and IJ, the thickness of the tread, and draw JK &c. The nosing of the steps may be drawn with dividers, or work a small piece in wood for a pattern, and lay it on at its proper place and mark around it; the pattern should be made a trifle less in size than that of the step so as to have it fill up tight. If the treads and risers are calculated for wedging let the steps be laid out as above described, then from P set off a suitable thickness for the wedges at PP and PR, and run them out to a point at NN.

In regard to this method of wedging the steps into the notch board, there is not the necessity of wedging them in an open stair case as in a tight one, that is where the stair is carried between two partitions. Wherever there is to be a nice stair case built of this description, the steps should be let into the notch boards, or strings, upon both sides; which is done by letting the step boards and risers in on the under side of the strings or stairs, the step boards and risers should also be tongued and grooved, and put together with glue, and also the wedges, as described in the diagram of the figure.

The notch boards in which the steps are let in, are generally from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 inches in thickness, they should not be less than $1\frac{1}{2}$; then lowering $\frac{3}{4}$ for the thickness of the lath and plastering, there will be $\frac{3}{4}$ left for the thickness of the base; or if the plank be $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick, lowering $\frac{3}{4}$ for plastering, there will be 1 inch left for the thickness of the base, which generally is as thick as required. If the plank be $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick, the steps should be let into them at least 1 inch; and to have firm steps they should not be less than $1\frac{1}{4}$ in thickness.

To put up a tight stair case of the above description; first lay out your notch-boards, or strings as heretofore described, and then nail them to their proper places, and be careful also to drive the nails upon the under side of the steps so they may not be seen. Then if your stair be all the way of equal width in the opening, square and saw off all the treads and risers, and the hollows of the nosing to their right length and also have the wedges made, and the square blocks of wood which is glued into the internal angles of the risers and step boards; then commence at the bottom by letting the lower riser into the floor, or scribe it down tight to it. We must remember, that this riser can neither be let in upon the under side or wedged, nor tongued into the first step board; therefore we must cut it one inch shorter than the rest, and so slip one end into the notch board, the depth of one inch, then draw it back into the others so as to divide them equal, then nail it down tight to the floor, and the notch boards by driving the nails obliquely on the back-side of the riser. Then put in the step boards, and when you have got them all in and wedged firm, and glued, commence putting in the risers; the tongues of the risers and step boards should be glued into the grooves.

The hollow of the nosing must however be put into its place before the riser. When the risers are put in and wedged; nail them strong to the step boards, upon the backside taking care the nails do not go through the face.

Then glue in the square blocks in the internal angles of the risers and step boards, as represented at NN, in (fig. 11,) which will strengthen the work and prevent them in a great measure from becoming rickety; and though this stair be done with the utmost care, it can never be made so firm as not to yield to the passenger; especially those of an open stair case.

Fig. 12, Shows the method of diminishing and tracing one bracket from another, in a stair case; A B being the breadth of those of the fliers: and AC those of the winders.

To find the Falling and Face-Moulds for an Elliptical planed Stair (Plate 22.) The plan and section of the rail being laid down as in (fig. 1, No. 1.)

The reader will observe, that the ends of the steps are equally divided off, around the elliptical wall and also at the rail or well hole. In order to cut the rail out to the best advantage, it should be made in three lengths, as represented at A B C.

The plan of this rail must be divided into as many equal parts, as there are steps; then take the treads of as many steps as you please; suppose there be eight in A, and six in B and C; let $h h$ at (fig. 1, No. 2.) be the tread of eight steps, that is the stretch out of the eight steps at A, and let $H h$, be the stretch out of the six steps at B and C. Thence draw the perpendiculars $h m$ and $H k$, and make $h m$ equal in height to the eight risers at A, and $H k$, equal in height to the six at B and C; and then draw the hypotenuse line $h m$, which will be the underside of the falling mould. Then set up the thickness of the rail $m n$ and $k l$, and draw $n l$ parallel to $k m$, which completes the falling mould. This falling mould, will be a straight line, excepting a little turn at the landing, and at the scroll where the rail must bend, in order to bring it level with the landing, and to the scroll.

To construct the face mould. Draw the chord line for each piece to the joints at A B C; also, draw lines parallel to the chords, to touch the convex side of the plan of the rail, as $h h$ at A, and $H h$ at B and C; and then from every joint draw perpendiculars to their respective chords. Then take the distance of $h n$ in (fig. 1, No. 2.) and set it off from h to n in F; and draw the hypotenuse line $n i$ and then take the distance of $H l$ in (fig. 1, No. 2.) and set it off from H to l in D and E, also draw the hypotenuse line $l i$. From thence you can transfer the several ordinates in A B C to D E F and complete the face mould as in the foregoing plate.

Fig. 2, No. 1, and fig. 2, No. 2. Shows a plan and elevation of a semi-circular well-hole for a stair and fig. 3, No. 1, and fig. 3, No. 2, shows the method of drawing the face mould of the hand-rail, and fig. 4, No. 1, shows a method of describing a vertical scroll appertaining to the same. All of these figures are

drawn at one third the size for practice. This stair-case is calculated for a straight run; and the well-hole is inserted at the landing of the floor.

To construct the well-hole as in (fig. 2, No. 1.) let the semi-circle *A B C* that part of the string board be worked out of two pieces of plank; and let the grain of the wood run vertically; and spring them by taking the angular corners off at *D C K*, *E K J* and *F H I* &c. Then let a groove be run in them at *H*, and glue them together by putting in a false tongue. Each piece should however be worked or rounded out to a pattern before they are glued which can be done with more facility and convenience, than when they are put together. The dotted lines at *R S* shows the projection of the outer edge of the upper step-board of the well-hole, and *P Q* the hollow under the step-board, or the nosing; *M N* is the opening between the rough string board and the trimmer joist.—*W* is the rough string.—*X* the upper riser which mitres into the string-board of the well-hole at *A*. The step-board of this well-hole should be worked in one piece, that is, from *S* where it mitres to the upper riser let it be continued across to *T* at the centre of the trimmer joist, and let *R T* be a square joint, where it finishes to the level flooring; then from *T* let it be squared across to the centre of the trimming joist at *U*. Thence let it run from *U* on the centre of the joist across the stair into the notch-board. The hollow of the nosing, which is worked around in the well-hole should be worked out of a square piece of board. This may be done by cutting the well-hole off that part of the string-board, on a plane at the under side of the hollow of the nosing.

When the well-hole of the string is set in at its proper place, take a board the thickness of your hollow, and fit it in close between the rough string and trimmer joist, as represented by the dotted lines at *L M N O*. Then set a pair of dividers of the projection of the hollow and from *P* scribe around the well-hole to *Q*, and this part after it is sawed out, must be worked out around with a gouge; and let the joint at *P O* be square, where the hollow on the level part ends, and the joint also at *L M* left square, so return the hollow on the piece from *Q* to *L*, and let the hollow on the upper riser end square to it.

The upper step-board may be worked around the well-hole in the same manner as above described.

To describe the falling mould or the ease-off of the well-hole as in (fig. 2, No. 2.)

The ease-off should be made where it can be at the centre, as represented at *E*. In order to describe it in this manner; let *A B C* in (fig. 2 No. 2.) be equal in length to the stretch out of *A B C* in (fig. 2, No. 1.) and *C D* in No. 2, be equal to the height at the level part of the landing: Then to square around within the well-hole, let a pattern of the pitch-board be made of thick paper as represented at *F G H*; and place the square side of this pattern on the vertical line or edge at *C D*, so as to have the square corner at *H* come upon *D*, and bend it around on the plane of the well-hole. With a pencil draw the line *D E* to the centre; then turn the pattern over upon the other edge as represented at *F' G' H'* and draw the line *F' E'* cutting the line *D E* at the centre *E*. Form the curve by intersecting lines, or trace the curve around with a pencil, which two inches each way from the angular point *E* will be sufficient to form the curve. The string-board of the stair in which the risers mitre into and finishes with that part of the well-hole at *F I*; the width of this string may be ascertained by drawing out one step at full size from *F I*.

To draw the face mould of the handrail as in (fig. 3, No. 1, and fig. 3, No. 2.) which stands over this semi-circular well-hole.

The reader will observe, this rail is not worked on a spring as is sometimes done; the quadrant part as in No. 1, lies on a perfect plane every way; that of No. 2, also lies on a plane one way, and the other, which, by running up on its true raking position brings the rail high enough upon the level landing at *B D* where the joint of the rail is made.

Patterns of this face mould may be made of a thin board or thick paper.—In No. 1, draw the quadrant *E A B* the inside of the rail; from *A* set off the bigness of your rail to *C*, and draw the quadrant *C D*; Then from *A C* draw so much of the straight part of the rail as is necessary, and draw the line *E D*, which will form the joint of the rail at *B D*, which completes the pattern for the level part of the rail.

To draw the pattern or the face mould for the raking part of the rail as in (fig. 3, No. 2.) First place your pitch-board of the stair, as represented at *E F G* so as to have the lower angular point come at *E*, and draw the raking line from *E* to *G*. Take the pitch-board off the paper or board, then continue the line *G E* to *H*, and draw the lines *E A C* and *H I J* at right angles with *G H*. Then take the distance of *E A* in No. 1, and set it off from *E* to *A* in No. 2, and from *H* to *I* also, and draw the straight line *A I*. Then take the bigness of the rail, *A C* in No. 1, and set it off from *A* to *C* in No. 2, and at *I J* also, and draw the straight line *C J*, which will complete so much of the straight part of the rail as will be necessary. Then divide the line *E D* in No. 1 into any like number of parts as 1, 2, 3, &c. and through these several divisions, draw the line *1 a b*, *2 c d*, *3 e f*, &c. parallel to *C E*, until they meet the line *G H* in No. 2. Then through 1, 2, 3, &c. in No. 2, draw the lines *1 a b*, *2 c d*, *3 e f*, &c. parallel to *E C*, or at right angles to *G H*. Thence take the distances *1 a b*, in No. 1, and transfer them to *1 a b* in No. 2. Then take *2 c d* in No. 1, and set them off at *2 c d* in No. 2, and so on until you have got all of the several ordinates transferred from No. 1, to No. 2. Then with a pencil draw the curve *A B* in No. 2, through the points at *a c e* &c. then at *C D* through *b d f* &c, which completes the face mould.

In order to work this rail out, let us suppose No. 2, to be the plank, and the pattern of the face-mould being laid on upon the face of it as represented in the diagram of the figure; mark around on the inside of the pattern at *B A I*, and on the outside also at *D C J*. Take the pattern off, and let the plank be turned up upon its edge as represented on the plate, at the right of No. 2, then place your pitch board on the edge as represented at *A B C* and draw the vertical line *A D*; slip the pitch-board along at *E*, and draw *E F*, to *G* also, and draw *G H*.—Then let the plank be turned down upon the other side, and turn the pattern of the face mould over so as to have the edge *E B D*, lie upon the edge at *D F H*, and mark around it as above described. Then let this plank be screwed into a vice, and set your compass-saw in on the line *E F* upon the edge of the plank as

represented at the right of No. 2, and saw the quadrant part around to *A D*, by following the lines which are drawn upon both sides of the plank. Then set the saw in on the line *G H* and let this be worked around in the same manner.—Thence if your rail be round, draw the circle as represented at *E F*, *G H*, which does not require the plank to be thicker than that of the level part as represented at the left of No. 1.

To draw the vertical scroll of the hand rail. This is generally made about eight inches in height; therefore we will suppose the height on the line *A B* as in fig. 4, No. 1, to be eight inches. Then let the line *A B* be divided into eight equal parts, then each division will be equal to one inch, and bisect the fifth division at the centre 1, from *A* down; from 1 draw 1, 2, at right angles to *A B*, which make 1, 2, equal in length to one inch or one of the eight parts (see fig. 4, No. 2, on which the centres are drawn to the full size;) bisect *A B* at the centre *H*.

Draw the lines *B G C* and *H E D*, at pleasure, and at right angles to *A B*.—Take the distance of *B H* in your compasses, and set it off from *B* to *G* and draw the line *E F G* parallel to *A B*. Bisect *E G* at the centre *F*.—Then take the distance of *G F* and set it off from *G* to *C* and draw *C D* parallel to *G E*.—Then will *A B C D* and *E* be the centres as represented at 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 in No. 1.

To describe the scroll as in No. 1. Take the distance of 1 *A* in your compasses and on 1 as a centre draw the quadrant *A C*. Then on 2, as a centre with the distance of 2 *C* draw the quadrant *C D*. Then on 3 as a centre with the distance of 3 *D* draw the quadrant *D E*. Then on 4 as a centre with the distance 4 *E* draw the quadrant *E F*. Then on 5 as a centre with the distance of 5 *F* draw *F G*. Then from *A* set down the thickness of your rail at *H*; and then in 1 as a centre with the distance of 1 *H* draw the quadrant *H G*, cutting the former at *G*: which completes it.

To draw the ease-off of the falling-mould; let a line be drawn from *A* at *I*, at right angles to the perpendicular *A B*. From *A* set off $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches to *J*. Then place your pitch board on as represented at *I J K*, and draw the raking line *J K* and set off about 3 inches from *J* to *L* and form the curve by the intersecting lines.

In putting up a continued rail of the above description there should be one or more iron balusters inserted near the well-hole at the landing, to support the rail and prevent it from trembling; or you may let an iron run from the under side of the raking rail off into the trimmer joist, as represented at *A B C* in Fig. 6.

To describe a scroll for a hand-rail as in fig. 5, No. 1. The reader will observe the scroll that has already been described on this Plate, is suitable for one of 8 inches; and the one that has been described on Plate 20, is suitable for one of 10 inches; which is drawn at full size. And the one that I am now about to describe, will be suitable for one of 12 inches; though either of the above mentioned examples, may be increased, or diminished, as choice may direct.

To describe this scroll as in fig. 5, No. 1, suppose the line *A B* the width of the scroll to be twelve inches. Then divide the line *A B* into eleven equal parts, and from 1, at the sixth division from *A*, draw 1, 2, at right angles to *A B* and make 1, 2, equal in length to one of the eleven divisions. We will now turn to fig. 5, No. 2, where the centres are drawn at full size. Let *A B* be equal in length to 1, 2, or one of the eleven divisions as in No. 1. Bisect *A B* as in No. 2, at the centre *K*; from *K* draw *K H* at right angles to *A B* and make *K H* equal to *K A* or *K B*; join the diagonals *H A* and *H B*. From *B* draw *B J C* at pleasure, and at right angles to *A B*; from *H* draw *H J* parallel to *A B*; and bisect *H J* at the centre *G*; then bisect *H G* at the centre *I*; and from *I* draw *I L* parallel to *B C*, which make *I L* equal in length to *I J*; from *L* draw *L C* parallel to *I J*; produce the line *C L* to *D* and make *L D* equal in length to *L C*. From *D* draw *D E* parallel to *L I* or *B C* until it meets the diagonal *H A* at *E*; From *E* draw *E F* parallel to *A B*, until it meets the diagonal *H B* at *F*; from *F* join *F G*.—Then will *A B C D E F* and *G* be the centres, which is the same as 123456 and 7, in No. 1. Thence in No. 1, take the distance of 1 *A* in your compasses, and one foot in 1 as a centre draw the quadrant *A C*. Then in 2, as a centre, with the distance of 2 *C* draw the quadrant *C D*. Then in 3 as a centre with distance of 3 *D* draw the quadrant *D E*. Then in 4 as a centre with the distance of 4 *E*, draw the quadrant *E F*. Then in five as a centre, with the distance of 5 *F* draw the quadrant *F G*. Then in 6, as a centre with the distance of 6 *G* draw the quadrant *G H*. Then in 7 as a centre with the distance of 7 *H* draw the arc to *I*.

Then set off the bigness of your rail from *A* to *J*. And again, with one foot of your compass in 1 as a centre with the distance of 1 *J* draw the quadrant *J K*.

Then in 2, as a centre with the distance of 2 *K* draw the quadrant *K L*. Then in 3 as a centre with the distance of 3 *L* draw the arc at *I*, intersecting the former at *I*, which completes it.

Fig. 7. Shows a section of a *dog-legged stair* with newel-posts.

The proportions are figured off in feet and inches.

The shortest newel, as represented at the landing stands opposite to the other. The hand-rail of the stair finishes with a *knee* at the bottom, and is mitred into a cap, which is turned on the upper part of the newel, the cap being turned in the form of the rail. And the rail miters into the cap of the newel-posts at the upper part, and is ramped up in the form of a *Swan-neck*, so called, being concave below and convex on the top, and terminating at the newel, so as to be parallel to the horizon.

This kind of stair, is substantial when finished, but its erection requires double the labor necessary for the completion of continued rails, as described on this plate.

DESIGNS FOR CHIMNEY-PIECES. (PLATE 23.)

Fig. 1 represents a design for a Grecian Chimney-piece, suitable for a Dining Room. The ornaments in the pilasters represents ripe fruit; the tympan of the pediment, an antique wreath, with ribbons; the extremities of which are terminated by Grecian heads, taken from models in the British Museum. The design is by Mr. Elsam, taken from an English work.

Fig. 2 represents a design for a Grecian Chimney-piece, with antae, imitated from the Choragic Monument of Trysallus.

Fig. 3 represents a design with pilasters, suitably adapted for a modern size room.

Fig. 4 is a design with columns after the Grecian style. The tablet and trusses of the frieze both in this example and also in that of fig. 3, are finished with diamond pannels; and the opening between the trusses and tablet are pannelled; they may be sunk about half an inch, and the form of them upon the face may be made like those at AC (pl. 12.) The trusses and entablature may project $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch from the pannels of those which are sunk into the frieze.

The plans of these designs are not described; but the columns of that in fig. 4 should stand clear from the face of the wall or the stiles of the frame; that is, let the abacus be perfectly square so as to have the capital of the column stand clear.

The pilasters of that of fig. 3 may project equal to one fourth of their breadth, which will be about two inches.

In fig. 2, let the antae project equal to one half of their breadth or diameter, which will be $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches; and then let one of the antique wreaths be cut in the centre, and place the halves on the returns of the ends of the frieze.

That of fig. 1 should project so far as to have so much of the head show on the ends as it does in front. This example and those of figures 2 and 4, are calculated for large size rooms; there is a scale of feet and inches applied for each example, though their general outlines are expressed in feet and inches, by figures. A is a section of the dentil band as in fig. 2, drawn at full size for practice.—B the antae capital at full size also.—C is a section through the front of the cap or shelf of the Chimney-piece.—D the bed-mould under the shelf which is recessed into the soffit, the height *e, e*.—E a section of the capital of the column at full size, as in fig. 4.—F and G a section of the cap and bed-mould at full size also.—g, g, shows so much of the bed-mould as is recessed into the soffit.

Plans and Elevations for Country Villages. (Plate 24.)

Fig. 1 exhibits the plan of the main body of the house, and elevation of the same, with a portico in front; the order is of the Grecian Doric.

An addition to the main body, as represented at AAA is usually erected for a kitchen, wash-room &c. The doors at DD enter the kitchen from the dining room and hall. The door at C in the hall, leads out into an open colonnade, and the two windows also at BB in the setting room, come down near to the level of the floor, forming a step out. The sash frames should be so constructed as to make the sashes go higher up than the top of the window, in order that a person may walk out without stooping. The rooms are calculated to be heated with coal, the grates are set at E, E, EE and the flues go up within the walls as represented on the plan.

There is a scale of feet applied, on which the different parts may be measured; or the dimensions are as follows:—The whole length of the building from the extremities of the antae is 48 feet 4 inches. The breadth of the portico at the top of the columns is 32 feet, and its height, from the surface of the ground to the top of the crowning mould of the cornice, 27 feet 10 inches; the entrance is raised 2 feet above the level of the ground, and ascended by three steps. The columns are 20 feet in height, and 2 feet 11 inches in diameter, being a trifle less than seven diameters; which we may consider a suitable proportion for a private dwelling. The Entablature is two diameters in height, which is 5 feet 10 inches. The height of the Architrave and Frieze are each made 44 minutes, equal to 2 feet $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches for the height of each. The Triglyph's are made 23 minutes in breadth, nearly $16\frac{2}{3}$ inches. The breadth of the metopes is made 42 minutes, equal to $24\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The height of the cornice is 32 minutes, equal to $18\frac{2}{3}$ inches, and the projection is $27\frac{1}{2}$ minutes, equal to $16\frac{1}{4}$ inches.

The breadth or diameter of the antae are 55 minutes, being equal to 2 feet $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and they project from the face of the wall 8 inches, or the length of one brick. The capitals of the antae are taken from the Choragic Monument of Trysallus, as described in (fig. 6. pl. 9, vol. 1 of Orders.) The face of the antae is on a vertical line with the face of the architrave; and the breadth of the soffit of the architrave or epistylum, is equal to the breadth of the antae or 55 minutes: that is, in the pediment part. The glass of the windows in the first story are 18 by 12 inches; and those of the second story 16 by 12.

NOTE.—Among all the entablatures of the Five Orders, the Doric is the most difficult to distribute: it is on account of the intervals between the centres of the triglyphs, which will not admit of being increased or decreased, without materially injuring the symmetry and characteristic beauty of the composition. And whenever the composer doubts in such a case, it will be better to leave them off entirely, and only employ the dentil-band, as represented in (figures 3, 4 and 5, on Plate 26.) For we may conceive by comparing this plan and elevation to that of fig. 2, their proportions of the piers or spaces are not so correct, neither upon the exterior part, nor in the interior part of the rooms.

Fig. 2 represents a plan and elevation of a Country Villa, with a portico in front, in the Ionic Order; taken from the little Ionic Temple on the river Illyssus near Athens; as described on (pl. 10, vol. 1 of Orders.) The dimensions of this building are nearly the same as the other, or as follows. The whole length from the extremities of the antae is 48 feet 6 inches. The breadth of the portico at the top of the columns is 30 feet 2 inches. The whole height from the surface of the ground to the top of the crown moulding of the cornice 27 feet 6 inches. The three steps that ascend is equal to 2 feet. The columns are 20 feet 2 inches in height including the base and capital; and their diameter is 2 feet 4 inches, which is equal to $8\frac{1}{2}$ diameters or nearly. The entablature is 2 diameters and 17 minutes, which is equal to 5 feet 4 inches. The height of the architrave is $55\frac{3}{4}$ minutes, and equal to 2 feet 2 inches. The frieze $49\frac{3}{4}$ minutes or 23 inches. The cornice 32 minutes or 15 inches. The projection of the cornice 39 minutes or $18\frac{1}{4}$ inches. The breadth of the antae is 54 minutes, which is equal to $25\frac{1}{2}$ inches; and the soffit of the epistylum of the portico, the same. The antae project from the face of the wall 6 inches, and the face of them stand on a line perpendicular to the face of the architrave of the entablature. The glass in the

windows of the first story are 18 by 12 inches, and those of the second story 16 by 12.

Plate 25 exhibits the plans and elevations for Country Villas, after the Castellated or Gothic style; or more properly called, British Architecture. The designs are by M. A. Nicholson.

Fig. 1. Elevation of a Castellated Gothic Villa, with buttresses, &c. The whole length of this building is 78 feet; and its height from the surface of the ground to the top of the battlements, 34 feet 2 inches. The battlements are continued all around the building, and the height of them is 2 feet 6 inches. The buttresses are 29 feet 3 inches high, with two water tables, on the top of which is a cornice. The cornice is continued all round the building. The windows on the ground floor are 4 feet 3 inches from the ground, their height 9 feet, and width 4 feet. The top of each window is crowned with a tablet, which reaches a little below the top of the window, on each side. The chamber-floor windows are 19 feet from the ground, their height is 8 feet, and width 4 feet, and they are crowned with a tablet, as below. The entrance is on the flank to the left, raised 1 foot 6 inches above the level of the ground, and ascended by three steps; it is enclosed within a porch of 12 feet in front, and 8 feet deep; the openings of the front and sides of the porch are 8 feet, and 4 feet 10 inches. The height to the springing of the arches is 8 feet, and to the top of the arch 3 feet 10 inches, over which runs a band, and is of the same height as that in the octagonal front of the building; on the right flank is a green-house, which will have a very beautiful effect on entering, as seen at one extremity of the passage through a sash-door.

Fig. 2.—Ground Plan of the Principal Story. A Porch, 8 feet by 6 feet; B Passage, communicating with the different apartments, 74 feet long by 6 feet wide; C Staircase to the Bed-chambers, steps 3 feet 6 inches long, treads 11 inches, risers rather more than 6 inches; Breakfast-room, 20 feet by 17 feet 6 inches; Dining-room, 20 feet by 17 feet 6 inches; Drawing-room, 30 by 30 feet; Library, 20 feet by 17 feet 6 inches; E Parlour, 20 feet by 17 feet 6 inches; D Waiting-room or Dressing-room, 19 feet by 15 feet; F Water-closet, which is entered by a door under the staircase; Green-house, 42 feet 6 inches by 12 feet 6 inches. The Servants' apartment &c. are on the basement, which is entered by the staircase, C.

Fig. 3.—Elevation of a Castellated Gothic Villa, with Buttresses and Pinnacles, on a straight Front. The extent of this building, from the extremity of one wing to that of the other, is 60 feet; extent of each of the wings, 11 feet 10 inches. The body of the building, 36 feet 4 inches. The entrance, 3 feet 4 inches wide, with a Gothic head, receding from the central part of the front, 3 feet 6 inches, forming a Porch, and raised above the level of the ground 1 foot 6 inches; ascended by 3 steps of 6 inches rise. The entrance to the Porch is 4 feet 10 inches wide, and it rises 6 feet to the springing of the arch; the arch is 4 feet high and is ornamented with mouldings and crockets on each side. The windows of the ground floor on each side of the Porch, are 6 feet 6 inches high by 4 feet 6 inches wide; those in the bed-chamber 4 feet 3 inches high and 4 feet wide.

Fig. 4.—Ground Plan of the Principal Story. A flight of three steps to the Porch, L, 7 feet 7 inches by 2 feet 6 inches. I Hall, 9 feet 6 inches by 7 feet 7 inches. N Staircase, steps 3 feet 3 inches, their rise is $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and the tread $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches. PP Passage to the different apartments, 57 feet 8 inches by 4 feet. B Breakfast-room, 14 feet 3 inches by 12 feet. A Dining-room, with folding doors, 14 feet 3 inches by 12 feet. F 12 feet 3 inches by 10 feet 7 inches. D Parlour, 12 feet by 10 feet 4 inches. C Library, 12 feet by 10 feet 4 inches. H Servants Waiting-room, 7 feet 6 inches by 6 feet 3 inches. E Kitchen, 12 feet 3 inches by 10 feet 7 inches. G Wash-house, 10 feet by 7 feet 6 inches. O Water-closet, 4 feet 2 inches by 3 feet.

Plate 26.—Elevations for Villas. Fig. 1 Elevation of a plain Country Villa. The dimensions are as follows:—breadth 24 feet, its height from the surface of the ground to the top of the crown-mould of the entablature, 25 feet. The entrance is raised 2 feet 10 inches above the level of the ground, and ascended by four steps. The height of the entablature 3 feet 11 inches. The architrave 1 foot 6 inches; frieze 1 foot 6 inches; cornice 11 inches. The glass in the lower windows are 16 inches by 11. Those of the upper 15 by 11.

Fig. 2. Elevation of a Villa with antae and an entablature. The breadth of the building 24 feet 4 inches; its height from the surface of the ground to the top of the crown-mould of the entablature, 25 feet 8 inches. The entrance is raised 2 feet 10 inches from the level of the ground, and ascended by four steps. The height of the antae is 18 feet 2 inches; their breadth or diameter 2 feet 4 inches or the length of $3\frac{1}{2}$ bricks; and their projection from the face of the wall 4 inches or the breadth of one brick. The height of the entablature 4 feet 8 inches, or two diameters. The height of the architrave is 22 inches; the frieze $19\frac{1}{2}$ inches cornice $14\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The Antae Capitals are taken from (fig. 2 on pl. 11 vol. 1 of Orders.)

The entablature may be taken from pl. 10 or from pl. 1; or the entablatures from plates 24 or 25 may be used if a dentil cornice is required. Let the breadth or diameter of the antae be divided into 60 minutes, and proportion the mouldings &c. from the scale. The glass in the lower windows are 16 inches by 11, and those in the upper, 15 by 11.

Fig. 3.—Elevation of a Villa with antae and an entablature. The dimensions of this building are nearly the same as the one last described, or as follows: Its breadth 24 feet 4 inches; the height from the surface of the ground to the top of the crown-mould of the cornice, 25 feet 4 inches; the height of the antae, 18 feet 2 inches; their breadth 2 feet 4 inches, or the length of $3\frac{1}{2}$ bricks; projection 4 inches, or the breadth of one brick. The height of the entablature is 4 feet 4 inches, or 111 minutes; the architrave is 21 inches, or 45 minutes; the frieze 17 inches or 36 minutes; and the cornice 14 inches or 30 minutes. The antae capital is taken from (fig. 6, pl. 9, vol. 1 of Orders,) the height of which is $27\frac{1}{4}$ minutes, or equal to $12\frac{3}{4}$ inches. The proportions of the entablature are from (pl. 3,) only the mutules are left off, and the frieze is made 4 minutes higher. Figures 1 2 and 3 are drawn from the scale of feet which is exhibited at Fig. 2.

Fig. 4.—Elevation of a Villa, with a *Belvedere* turret, or an observatory, which if the building be erected on elevated ground, will afford a favorable situation for viewing the surrounding country.

The *Order* or style of this building is the same as the one last described; and the dimensions are as follows: The extent of the front of this building to the extremities of the antae, is 46 feet; its height from the surface of the ground to the top of the crown-mould of the cornice, 29 feet 5 inches. There are four steps 8 inches each, which are equal to the height of 2 feet 8 inches from the level of the ground. The height of the antae 21 feet; their diameter or breadth 3 feet, or the length of $4\frac{1}{2}$ bricks; they project 8 inches, or the length of one brick. The height of the entablature is 5 feet 9 inches, or 1 diameter and 55 minutes. The architrave is 2 feet $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches nearly, or 47 minutes; frieze 1 foot 8 inches, or 37 minutes; cornice 1 foot $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches, or 31 minutes. The ledge or belt above the cornice, is $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches in height, or 18 minutes. The gutters of the roof should lie on the back side of this belt, and they may be made of tin, copper, or any other metal. The face of this belt stands out about 4 inches from the vertical face of the entablature, and the chimney-shafts stand a little within so as to have the water run freely in the gutter, betwixt the belt and chimney. The roof should be covered with tin or some other metal, especially that part below the belt. The roof rises 8 feet from the top of the crown-mould of the cornice, to the under side of the *belvedere*. The *belvedere* is 10 feet in breadth; and its height from the under side of the plinth or pedestal to the top of the cornice, is 15 feet. The plinth on which the antae sets is 1 foot 5 inches in height. The height of the antae is 10 feet, and their breadth or diameter is 1 foot $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches; and they project 6 inches. The height of the entablature is 3 feet 7 inches, or 1 diameter and 55 minutes. The architrave is 1 foot $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches, or 47 minutes nearly; the frieze is 1 foot $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches, or 37 minutes; and the cornice is $11\frac{1}{2}$ inches, or 31 minutes. The windows are of the Grecian style, the breadth of them are 3 feet 10 inches, that is, the sashes; their height is 7 feet. The architraves are 9 inches in breadth, and are similar to those of (fig. 8 or 9, on pl. 16.) The sashes should be made in one part, and so constructed as to run higher up above the top of the sash-frame into the entablature. The glass in the windows of the principal story may be from 18 to 20 inches by 12; and those of the chamber windows 16 to 18 by 12.

Fig. 5, shows an Elevation of a building suitably constructed for a City block, or where the building is continued from one street to another or around a square, and is divided into a number of tenements. The dimensions and parts of this building may be taken from the scale of feet. The basement story is supposed to be finished, and the windows in front consist of six panes of glass, and the size of them are 20 inches by 12. Those in the principal story consist of twelve panes each, the size of which is 20 inches by 12. And those in the first story of the bed-chambers are 18 inches by 12; and in the next, 16 by 12. The *attic* story is designed to be finished also, with frieze windows, in the frieze of the entablature. These windows are generally concealed with some kind of ornament, either foilage or a fret as represented. The walls of the basement and principal story are calculated to be built of stone, and that of the principal story rusticated. The thickness of the basement wall is 20 inches, and that of the principal story 16. Above the principal story the walls are supposed to be built of brick, with antae; the antae project 8 inches, their diameter or breadth is 3 feet, or the length of $4\frac{1}{2}$ bricks. Their height is 20 feet; and the entablature is 6 feet or two diameters. Above this entablature is a *Balustrade*; the height of which is 5 feet, or 100 minutes. The height of the base or plinth is 1 foot $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches, or 24 minutes. The die of the pedestal is 3 feet in height, or 60 minutes; and their breadth is also the same; the height of the cornice is $9\frac{1}{2}$ inches or 16 minutes.

Plate 27.—*Ground Plan and Elevations of a Church in the Grecian Style.*—The design is by M. A. Nicholson.

References to the plan. The Portico (a) of four columns, projects out from the front of the wall, 8 feet 6 inches. The *Vestibule* (b) leads to the body of the chapel and side stair-cases; diameter, 19 feet 9 inches within the columns.

Stair-cases of an elliptical form (cc) leading to the gallery, 22 feet 8 inches by 20 feet 9 inches; length of treads, 4 feet 10 inches; breadth in the middle, 11 inches; risers rather more than 6 inches. Side Entrances, (ff.)

The body of the Church may be 89 feet long and 54 feet 3 inches broad, and it will contain sixteen hundred sittings, (including free seats,) exclusive of seats for children in front of the organ.

hhhh, represents Pews 3 feet wide; seats 1 foot; book-desk $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches; oo, larger Pews; pp, spaces between the free-seats. The Pulpit (n) of an hexagonal form; i Stair ascending to it. Reading-desk, (m) with clerk's seat in front; stair (i) ascending to it. The Communion-place of a circular form, with four three-quarter columns, and two antae; betwixt the columns are two niches and a window in the centre.

The Vestry-room (s) is 22 feet 2 inches by 15 feet 4 inches. The entrance to Circular Stair (y) leading to library above. The Anti-room under Portico (u) 10 feet 5 inches by 8 feet. The Robing-room [t] 22 feet 2 inches by 15 feet 4 inches. The Anti-room [v] 10 feet 5 inches by 8 feet. X Entrance to the Catacombs. W Back-Portico of four columns, projecting out from the wall 5 feet 6 inches.

Description of the *Front Elevation*. The extent of the front of this building to the extremities of the antae, is 64 feet 9 inches; the breadth of the portico at the top of the columns, is 37 feet. The columns are raised 1 foot $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches above the level of the ground, and are designed from the Monument of Lysicrates, as described on [Pl. 23 Vol. 1 of Orders.] their diameter is 3 feet, and height, including the base and capital, 29 feet. The height of the entablature is 7 feet 4 inches; the architrave 2 feet 9 inches; the frieze, 1 foot 10 inches; and the cornice, 2 feet 9 inches. The ornament which stands on the top of the cornice is 13 inches high, and is continued all round the building. The antae are of the same width as the top of the upper diameter of the columns, and do not diminish. The capitals of the antae are a composition, as there are no antae to be found in this style of Grecian architecture. The principal entrance is ascended by three steps in front of the portico, of $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches rise; tread 1 foot. Its width at the bottom

is 6 feet 11 inches; it diminishes to the top, and its height is 14 feet. The side entrances are each 6 feet 7 inches at bottom, and diminish to the top; their height 12 feet 9 inches, with an architrave round them and a cornice at the top, supported at each extremity by a console. The niches on each side of the principal entrance are 4 feet 3 inches wide and 9 feet 10 inches high, and diminish on each side parallel to the sides of the columns. The Attic, which stands over the cornice of the entablature, is 5 feet 9 inches high, with a dentil cornice and three fascias below. The height of the pediment is 7 feet 10 inches from the top of the cornice on the attic. The height of the pedestal, from the bottom of the pediment to the top of the columns round the belfry, is 7 feet 10 inches. The columns and entablature round the belfry are 20 feet 10 inches high, and are similar to those in the portico; the wall which is seen between the columns, is rusticated above the two plinths. The apertures in the belfry for letting out the sound, are 4 feet 2 inches wide, and 11 feet 3 inches high.

The part where the dials of the clock are placed is of an octagonal form; its height, including the two circular steps from the top of the cornice, round the entablature of the belfry, to the top of the cornice, above the dials, is 9 feet 10 inches. There are four dials in it at right angles to each other, and four small apertures in the diagonal faces, each 3 feet wide and 4 feet high, filled in with perforated luffer boarding in the form of scales.

The part over the dials above the two circular steps, is of an octagonal form; with eight columns supporting an entablature. Its height, including the two circular steps at the top of the entablature, is 15 feet 8 inches. The diameter of each column is 1 foot $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches and 11 feet 7 inches high; the entablature 2 feet 7 inches. The height of the small pediments above the entablature is 1 foot 9 inches, with a honey-suckle betwixt each.

The height of the spire above the top of the pediments to the top of the cross, is 44 feet $9\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and this portion is ornamented with scales to the height of 28 feet 10 inches. The whole height of the steeple, from the ground to the top of the cross, is 152 feet.

Description of the *Flank Elevation*.—The whole extent of this front, including the projecting porticos on the bottom line of the entablature, is 166 feet 3 inches. That between the two extreme half antae, on each side of the bows, is 146 feet 8 inches; and the plain part between the bows, is 88 feet 2 inches. Each of the bows is 26 feet 3 inches. The height, from the top of the steps to the top of the sills of the lower windows, is 3 feet 8 inches. The lower windows are 5 feet 2 inches wide, diminishing a little at the top, and their height is 4 feet 10 inches. The height between the under side of the lintel of the lower windows and the top of the sill of the upper windows is 6 feet 7 inches. The height of the windows above is 9 feet 6 inches; and the breadth, at the bottom, 5 feet, diminishing to the top about $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The height from the under side of the lintel of the upper windows, to the lower line of the entablature, is 4 feet 5 inches. The height from the ground to the top of the roof is 50 feet $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The frames of the windows to be of metal. All the ornaments on the exterior of this building may be of terra-cotta, or of stone, if built in a country where both labour and stone are cheap.

Plate 28.—*Ground Plan and Elevations of a Chapel.*—A, represents the Porch, recessed within two columns, 26 feet 4 inches by 4 feet 6 inches. B, an elliptical Vestibule, with pilasters and niches, lighted from the top, 27 feet 3 inches by 16 feet 10 inches. D and C, Side Staircases to gallery, 25 feet by 13 feet; with a circular staircase in one corner, leading to the children's gallery and tower.

The size of the interior body of the chapel is 83 feet by 58 feet. The principal passage, representing the free seats, is 8 feet within the clear of the pew-doors. The side passages are each 3 feet to the front of the seats next the walls. The pews are 3 feet wide; the seats 1 foot; the book-desk $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches; and the doors 1 foot 7 inches.

The Pulpit, [n] is of an hexagonal form, with stairs ascending up to it. o, Reading-Desk, with clerk's seat in front.

The little black circles represent the columns which support the gallery. The Communion-Place [H] is of an elliptical form, and raised one foot high. E, Vestry-Room, 18 feet 6 inches by 13 feet, with a fire-place, and small closets in the angles. The Strong Closet, [e] 6 feet 2 inches by 5 feet 2 inches. Water-Closet [g] 6 feet by 3 feet 9 inches, the mean proportion. F, Robing-Room, with fire-place, and closets of the same dimensions as Vestry-Room. G, entrance to the vaults.

Description of the *Front Elevation*.—This building is in the style of the *Grecian Doric*. The extent of its front, to the extremities of the pilasters, is 66 feet. Its height, from the ground to the top of the cross, is 112 feet. The entrance, or door, is raised 2 feet 8 inches above the level of the ground, ascended by 5 steps of rather more than 6 inches rise, which are continued all round the building. The opening of the door is 7 feet 3 inches in the clear at bottom, and 6 feet 10 inches at the top; diminishing about one-seventeenth part of the breadth. The door is of oak; it is divided into eight panels, and opens in two halves, to the height of the head betwixt the third and fourth panel; and is hinged to a vertical bead, which runs up by the side of the architrave of the door. The architrave is about two-ninths of the breadth of the door. That part of the architrave which extends across the top of the door, is a little less. Over the architrave is a Cornice and Pediment, with an ornament at each corner, supported at each extremity of the cornice by a console. Over the door is a panel, which may be filled in with bas-relief, or an inscription.

The columns are 31 feet 5 inches high; their diameter at bottom 5 feet $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and at top 4 feet. The pilasters are of the same width as the top of the column. The mouldings of the caps are similar to those of the Monument of Thasylus. The lower windows betwixt the pilasters, are 5 feet 5 inches wide at bottom, and at top 5 feet $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The windows above are of the same width at bottom as those below, and at top 5 feet $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The architraves are 1 foot $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches with a break at top, of about 2 inches. The bars of the windows are of metal. The sills of the windows are $11\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

The height of the Architrave, Frieze, and Cornice, is 8 feet. The breadth of the triglyphs is 2 feet 5 inches. The height of the Pediment, from the top of the

Fig 1

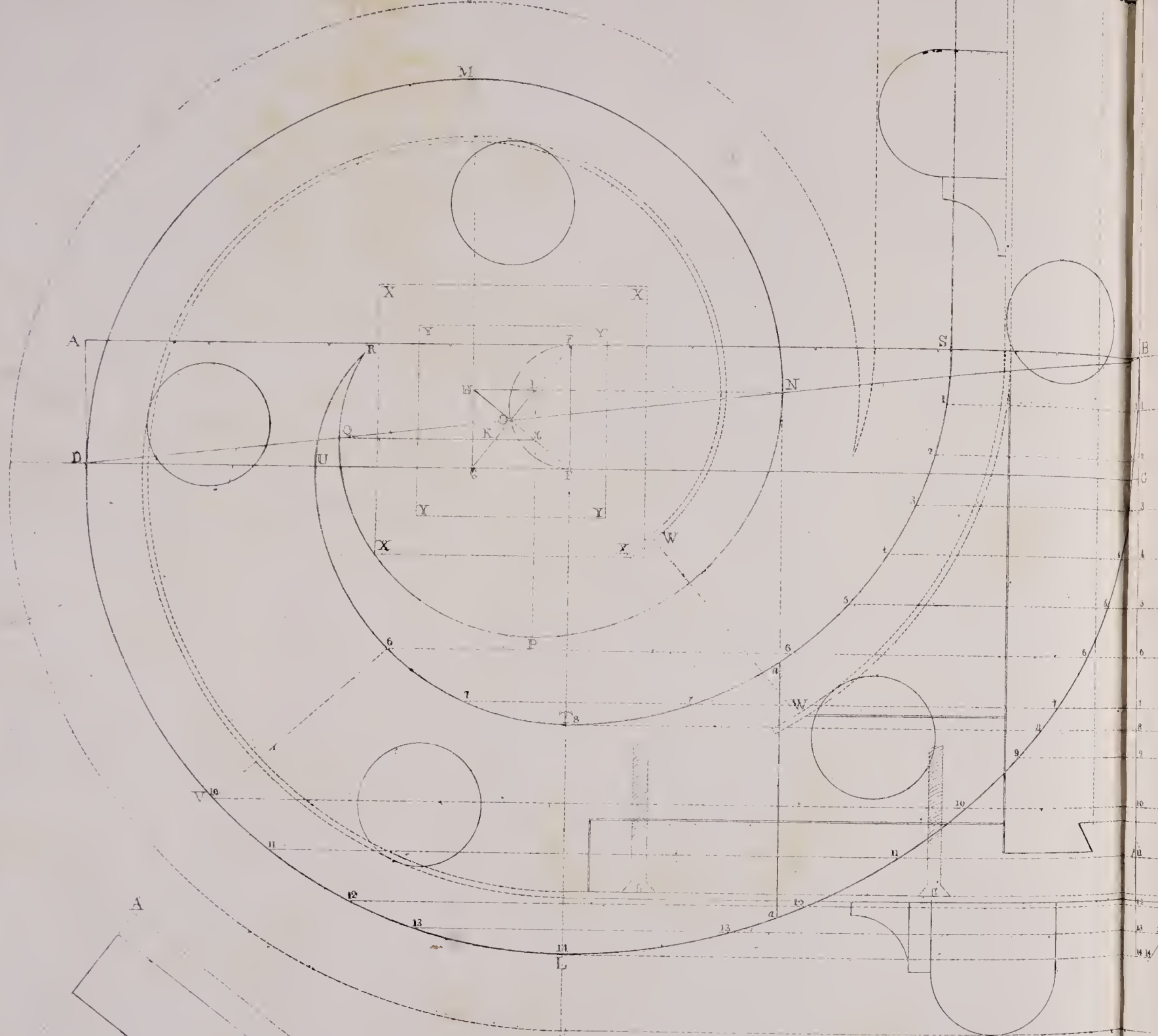


Fig 2

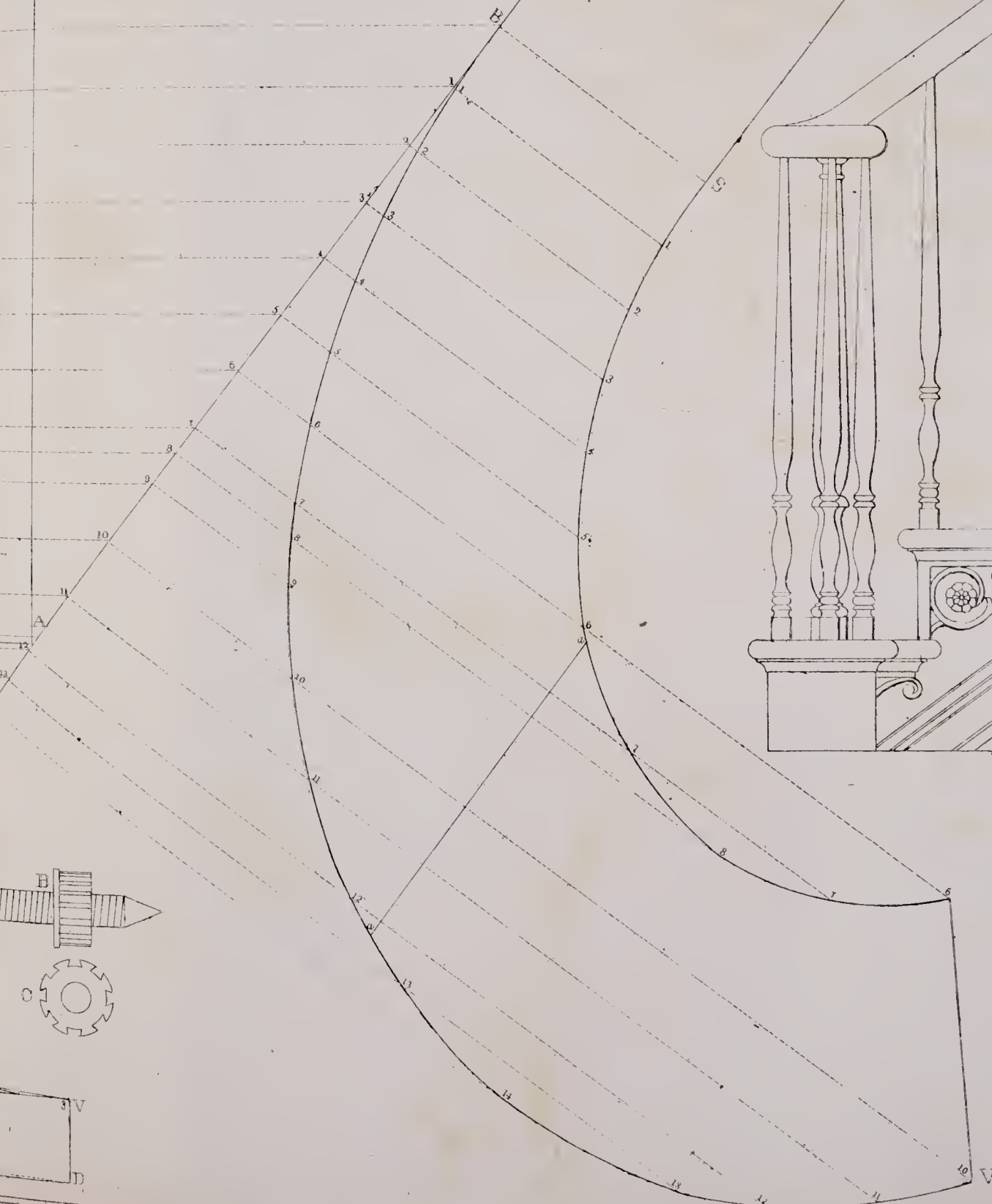


Fig 3

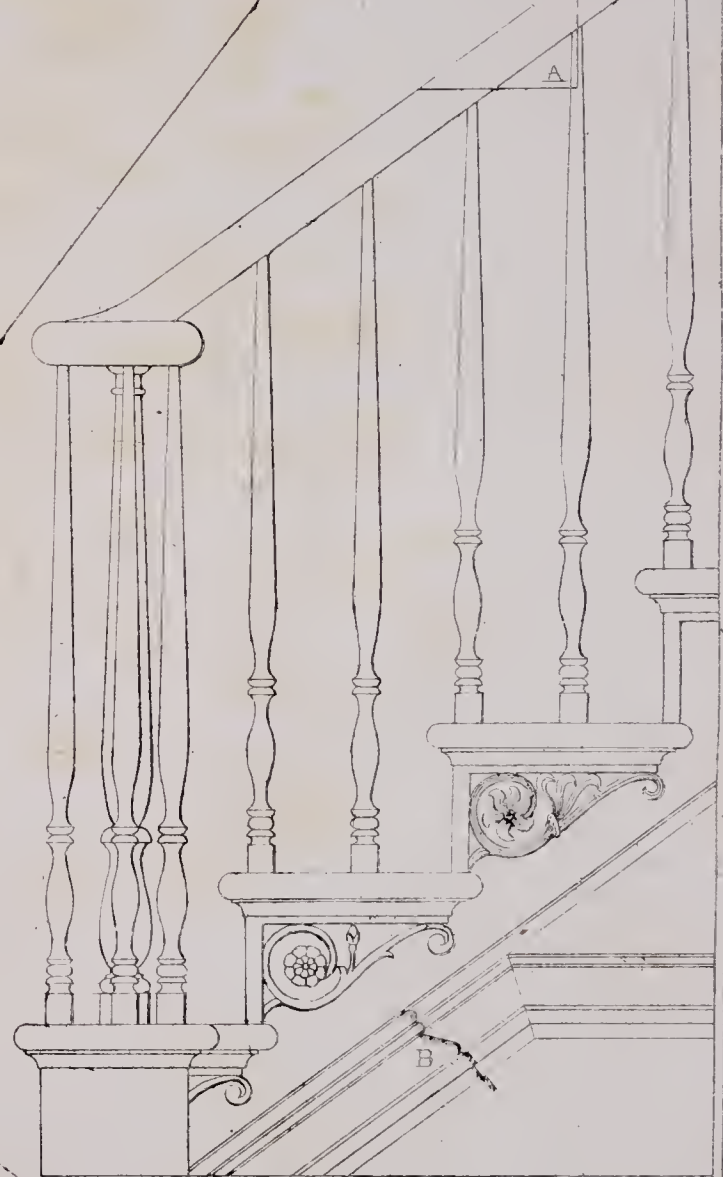


Fig 4

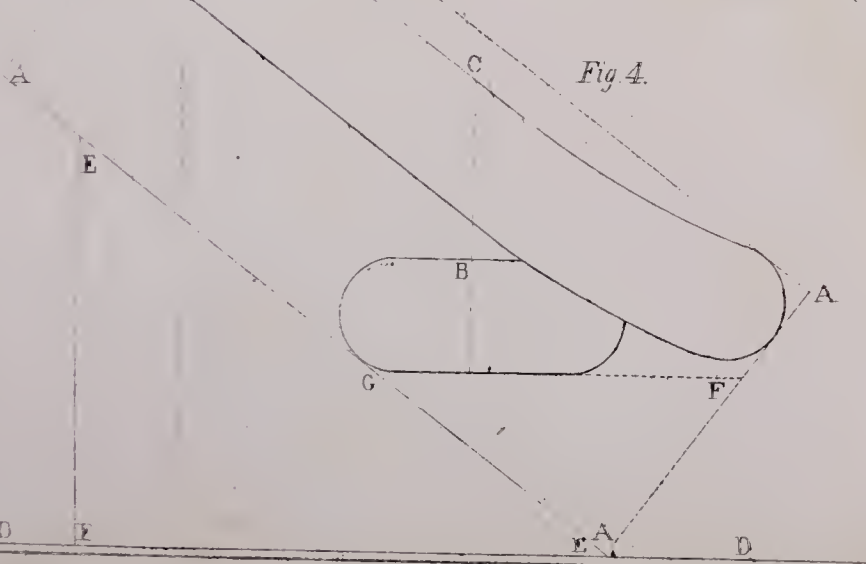


Fig 5

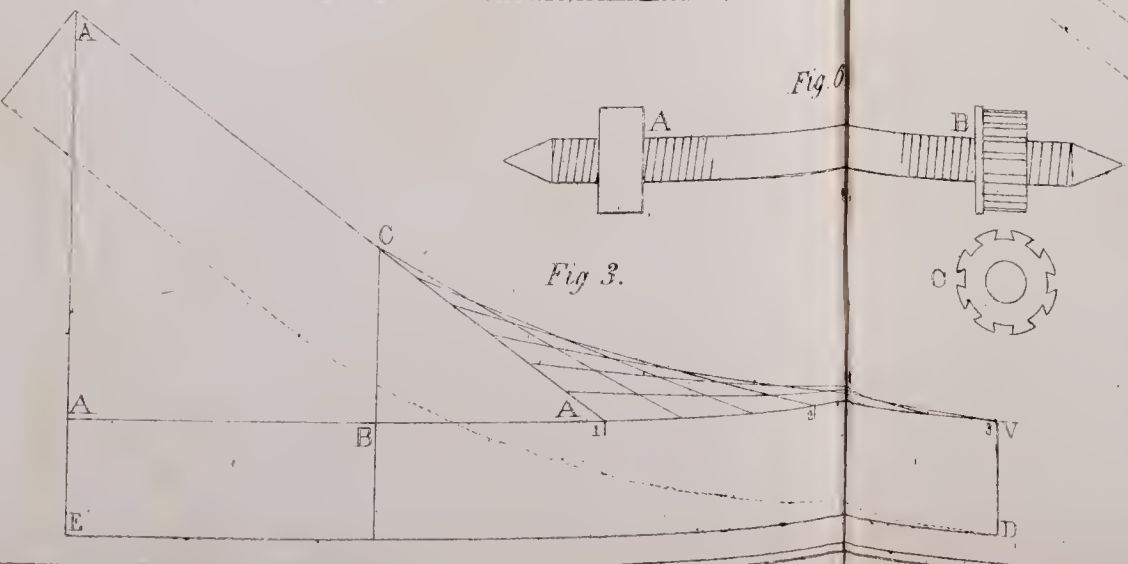
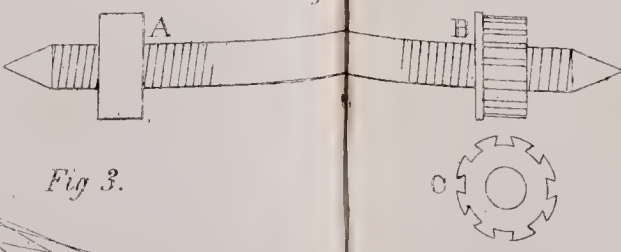
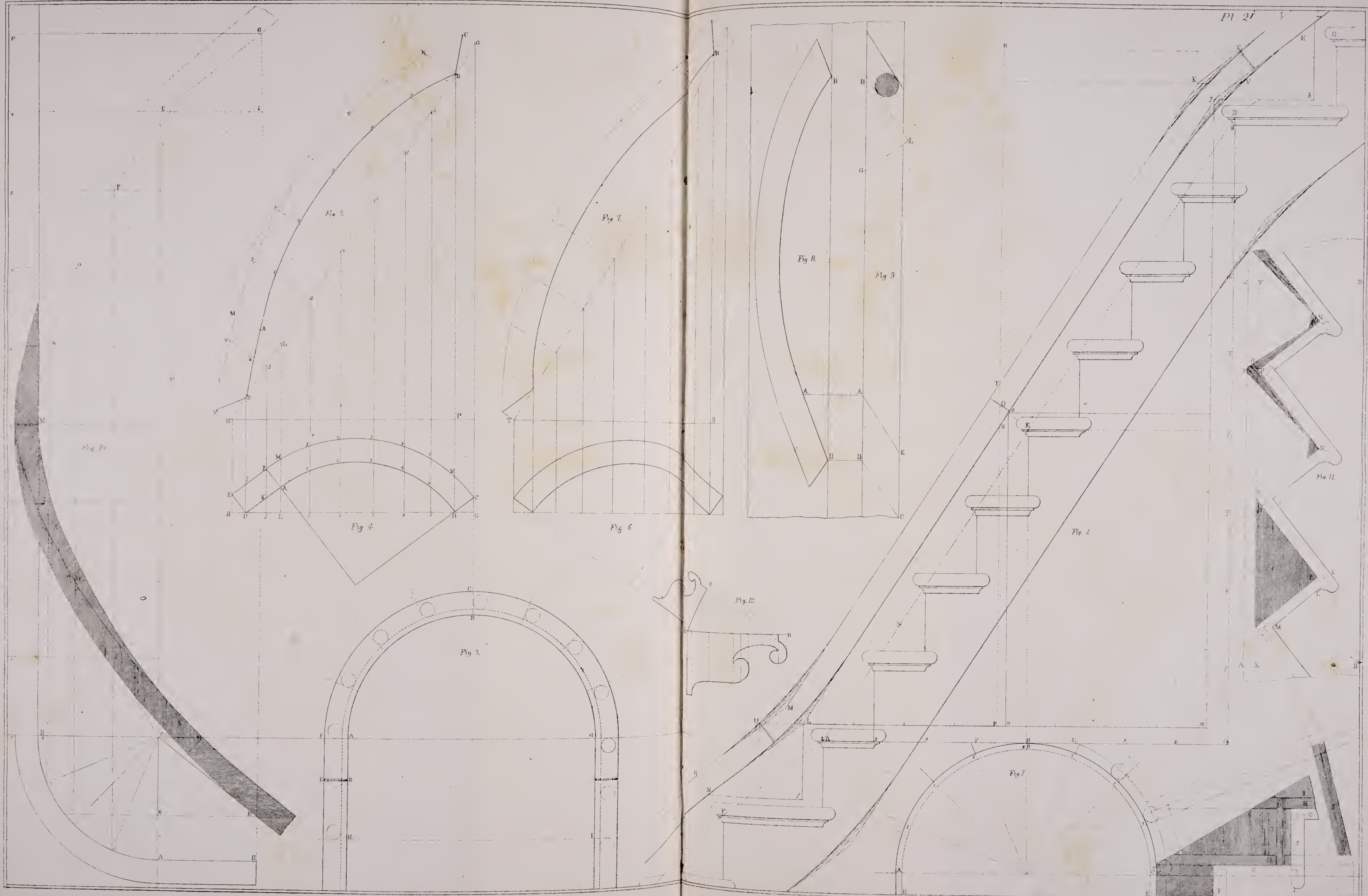


Fig 6





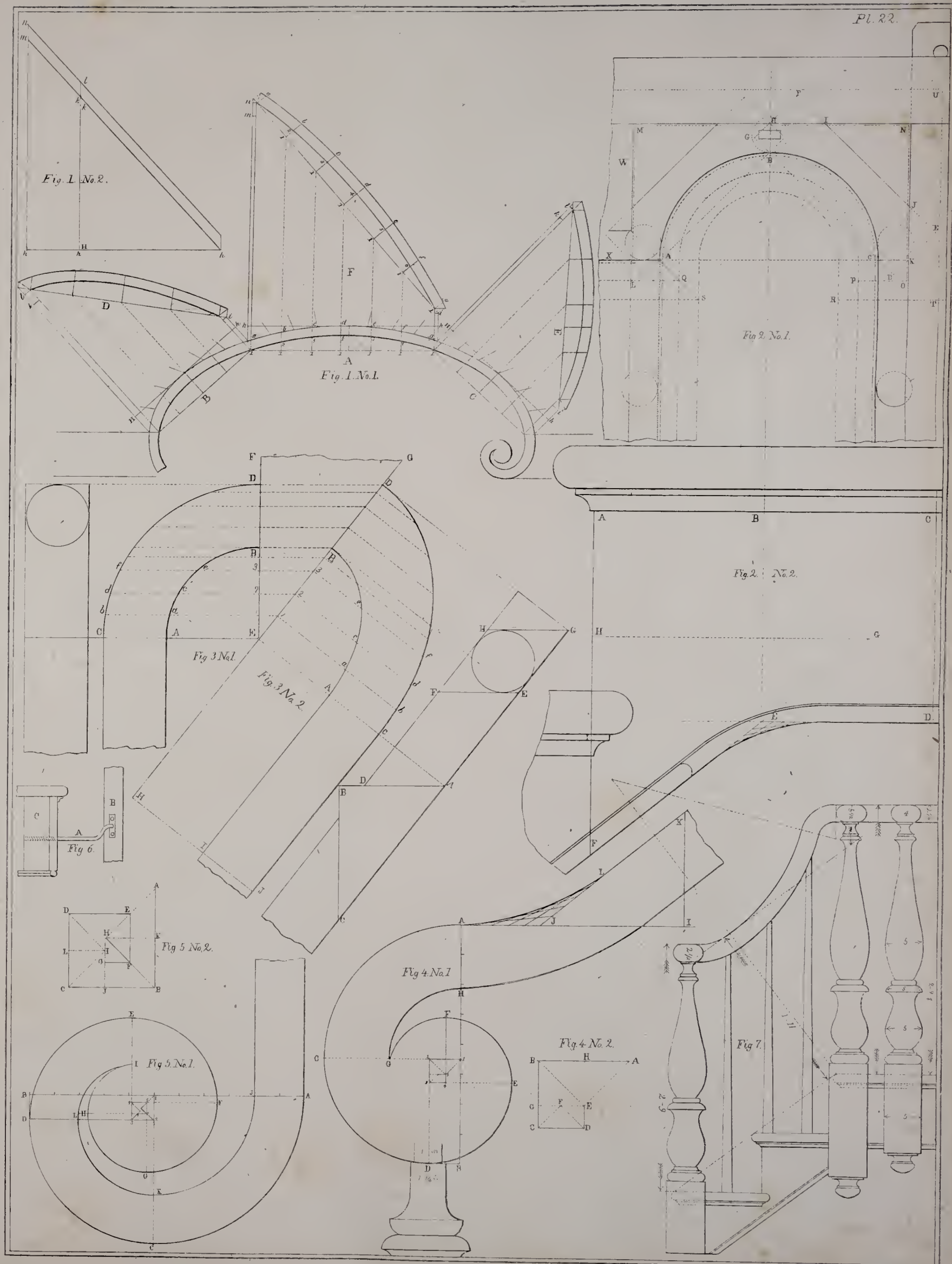
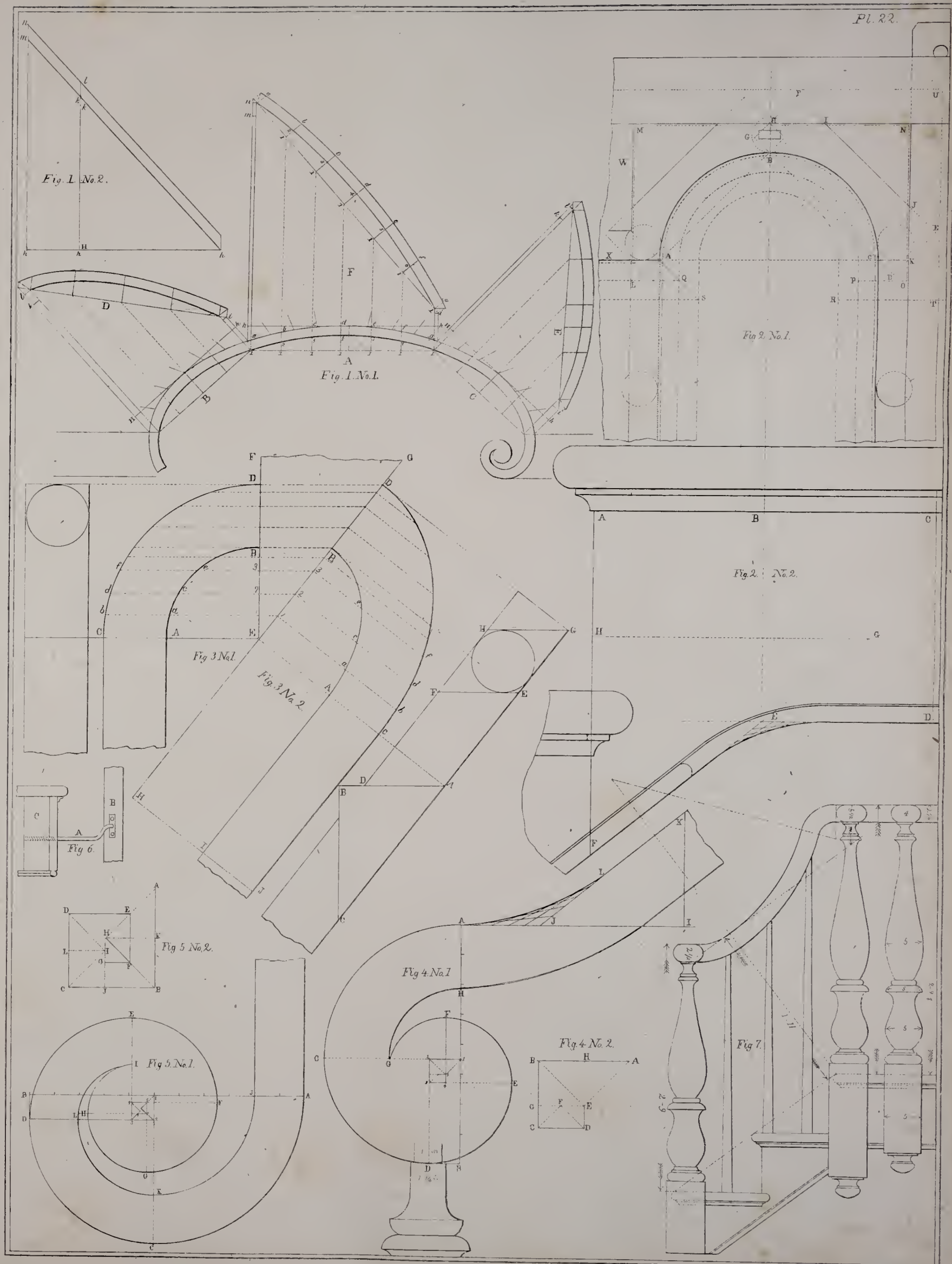
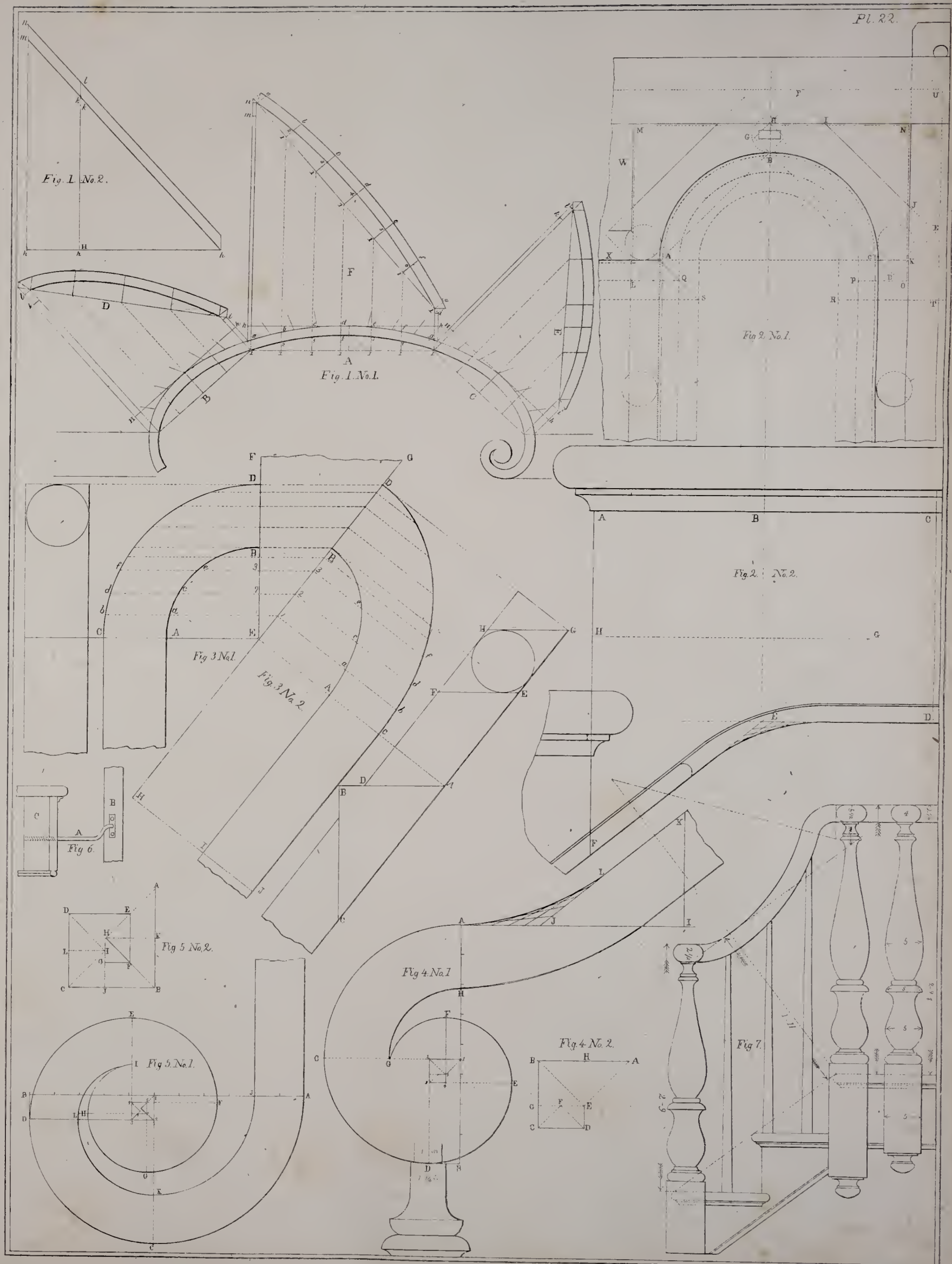
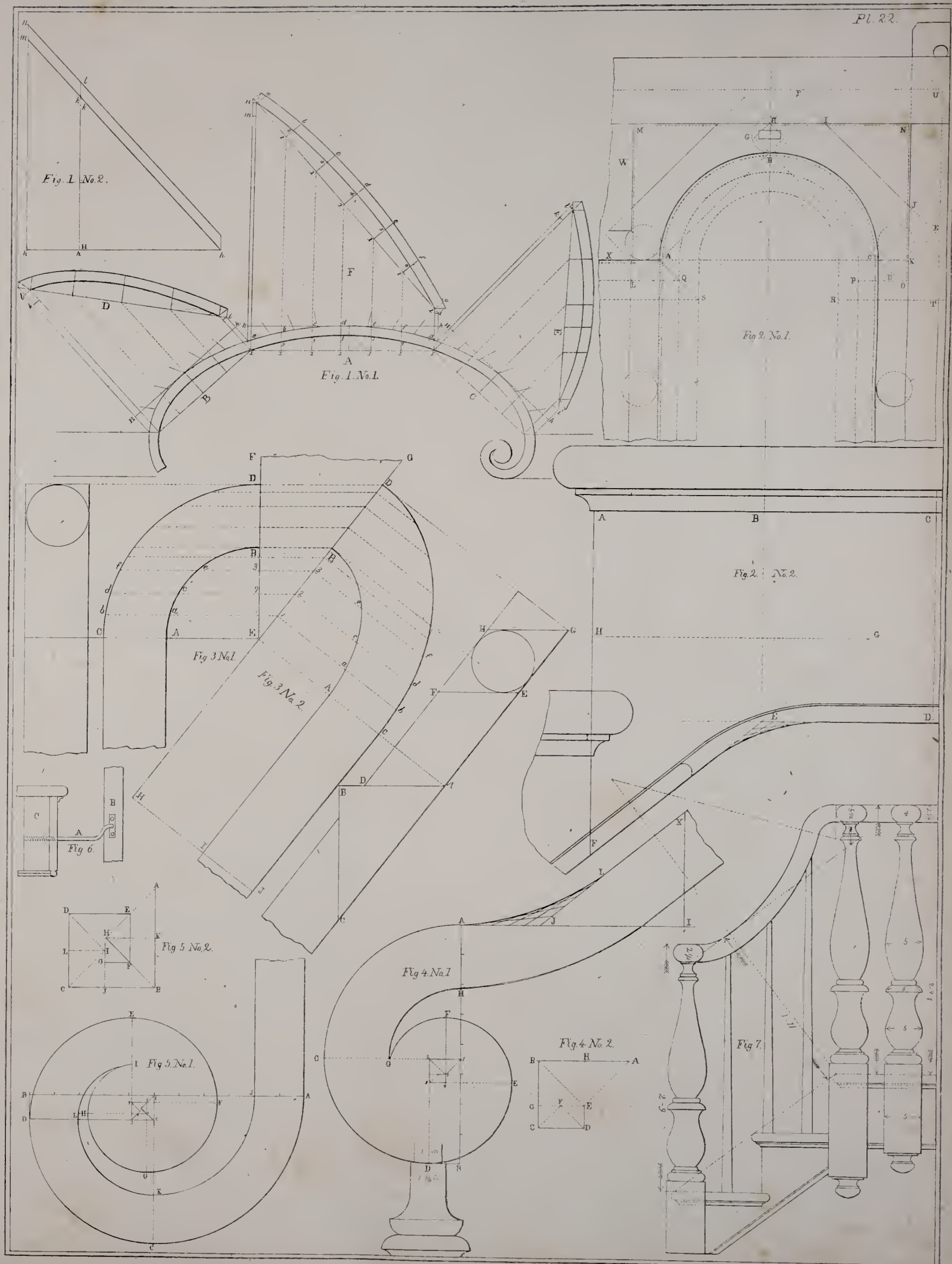
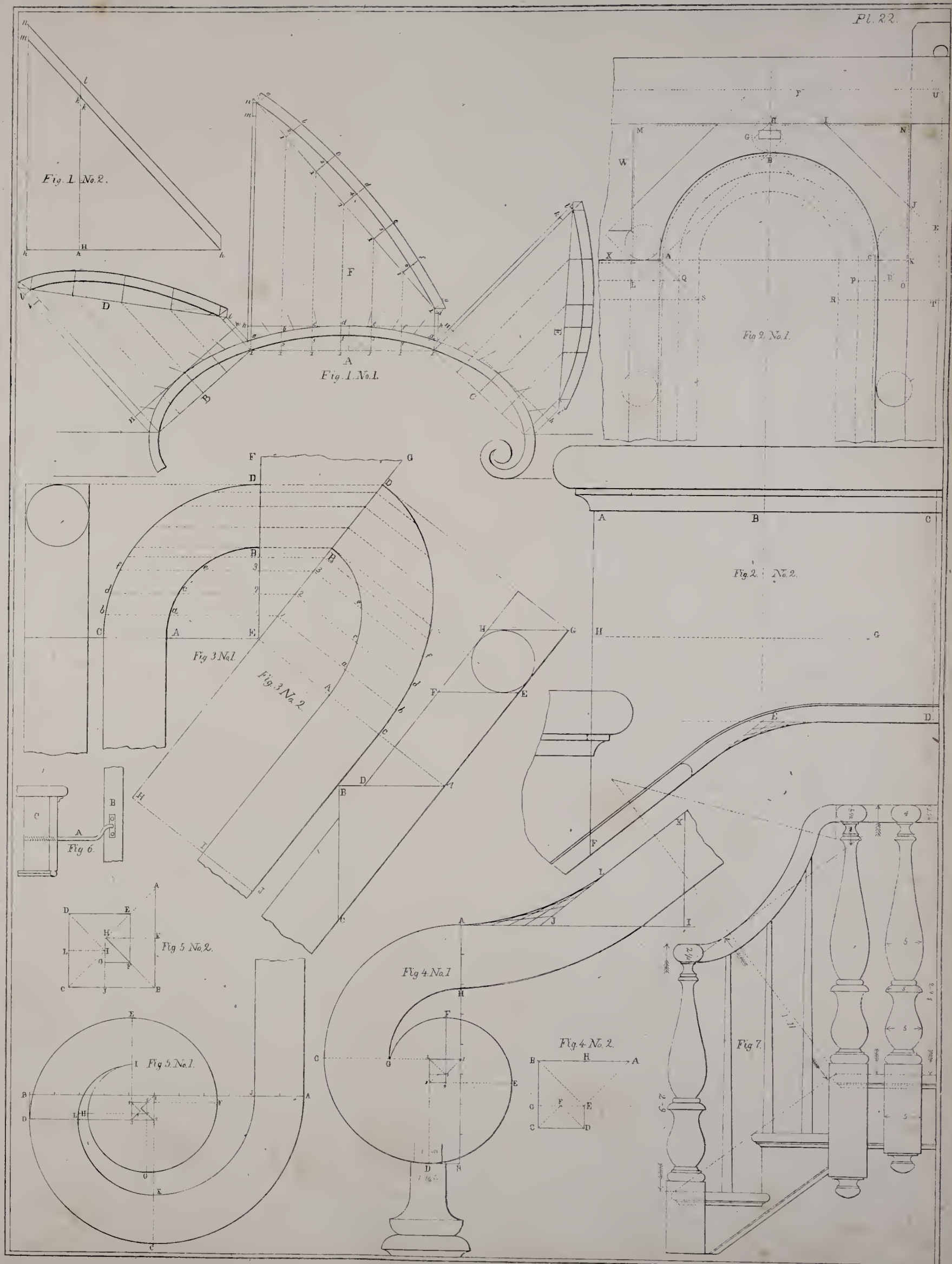
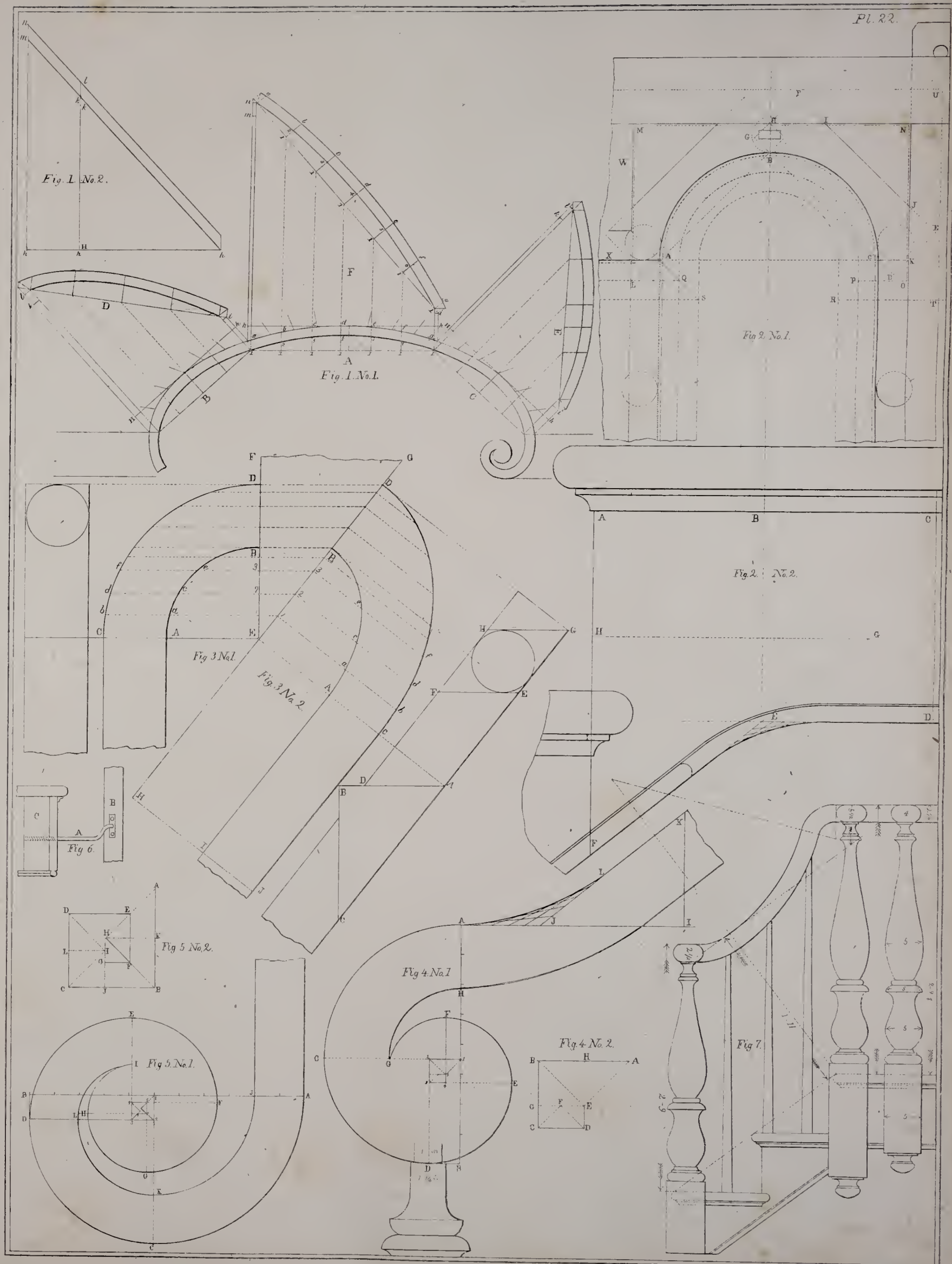
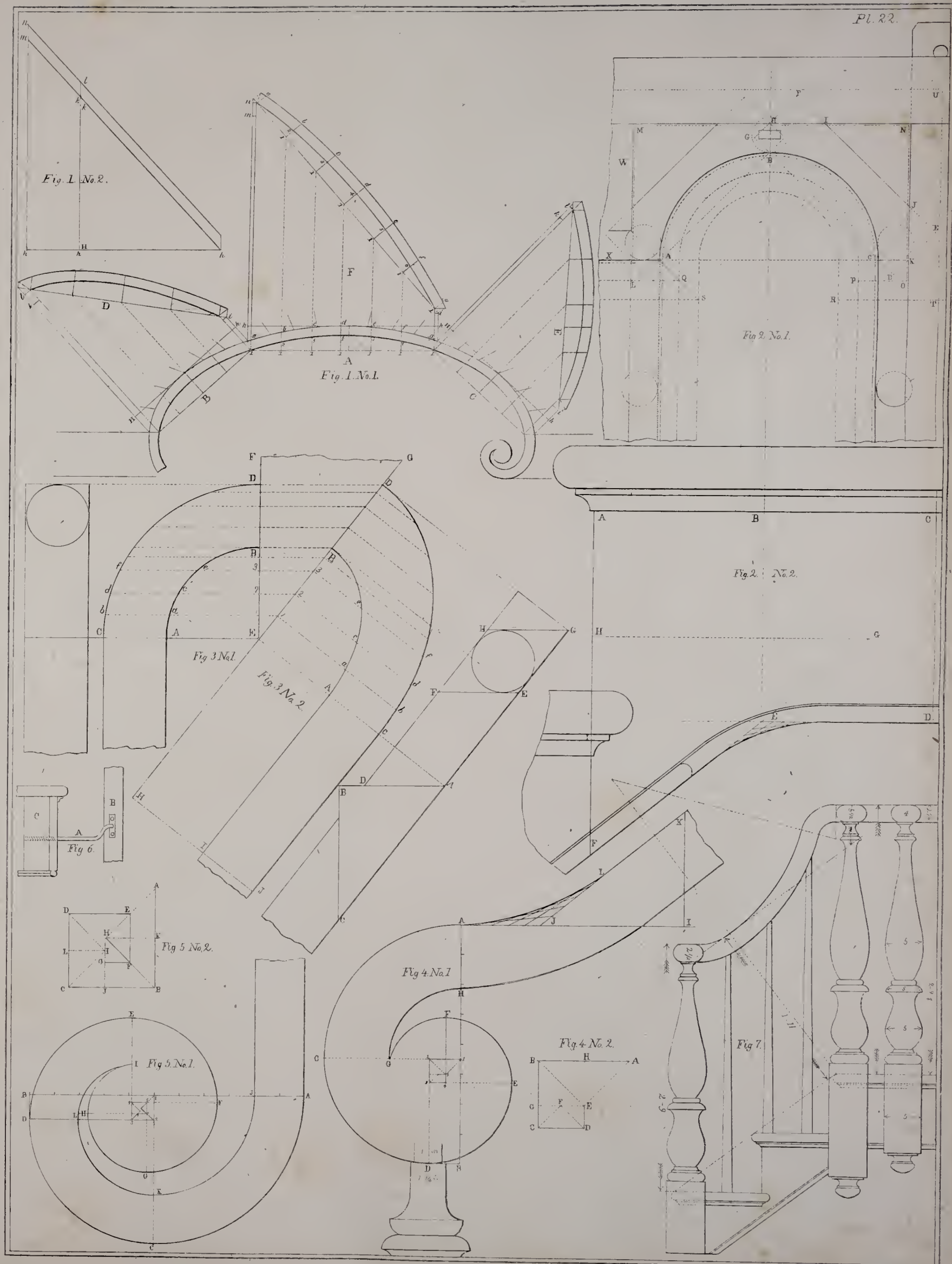
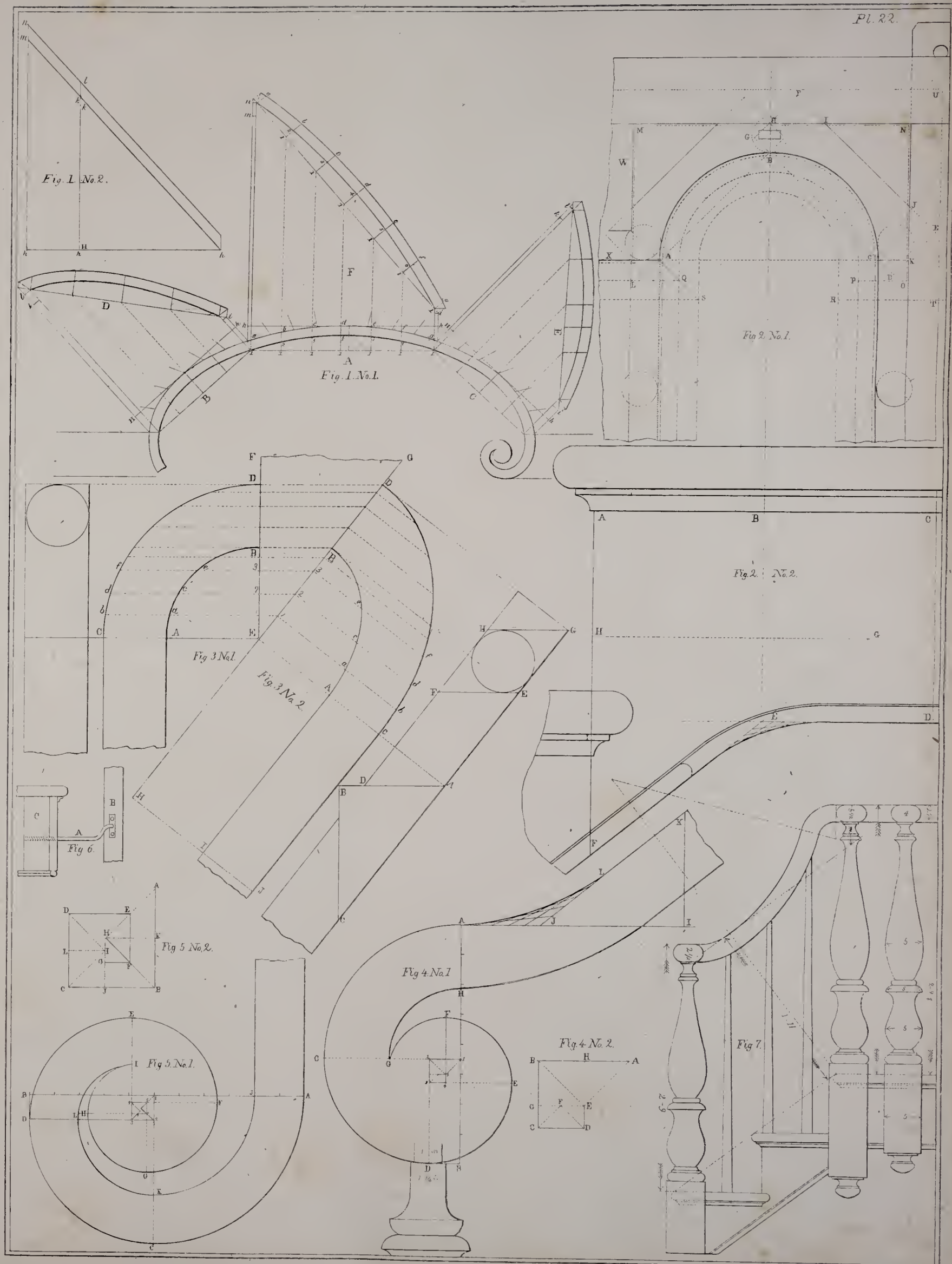
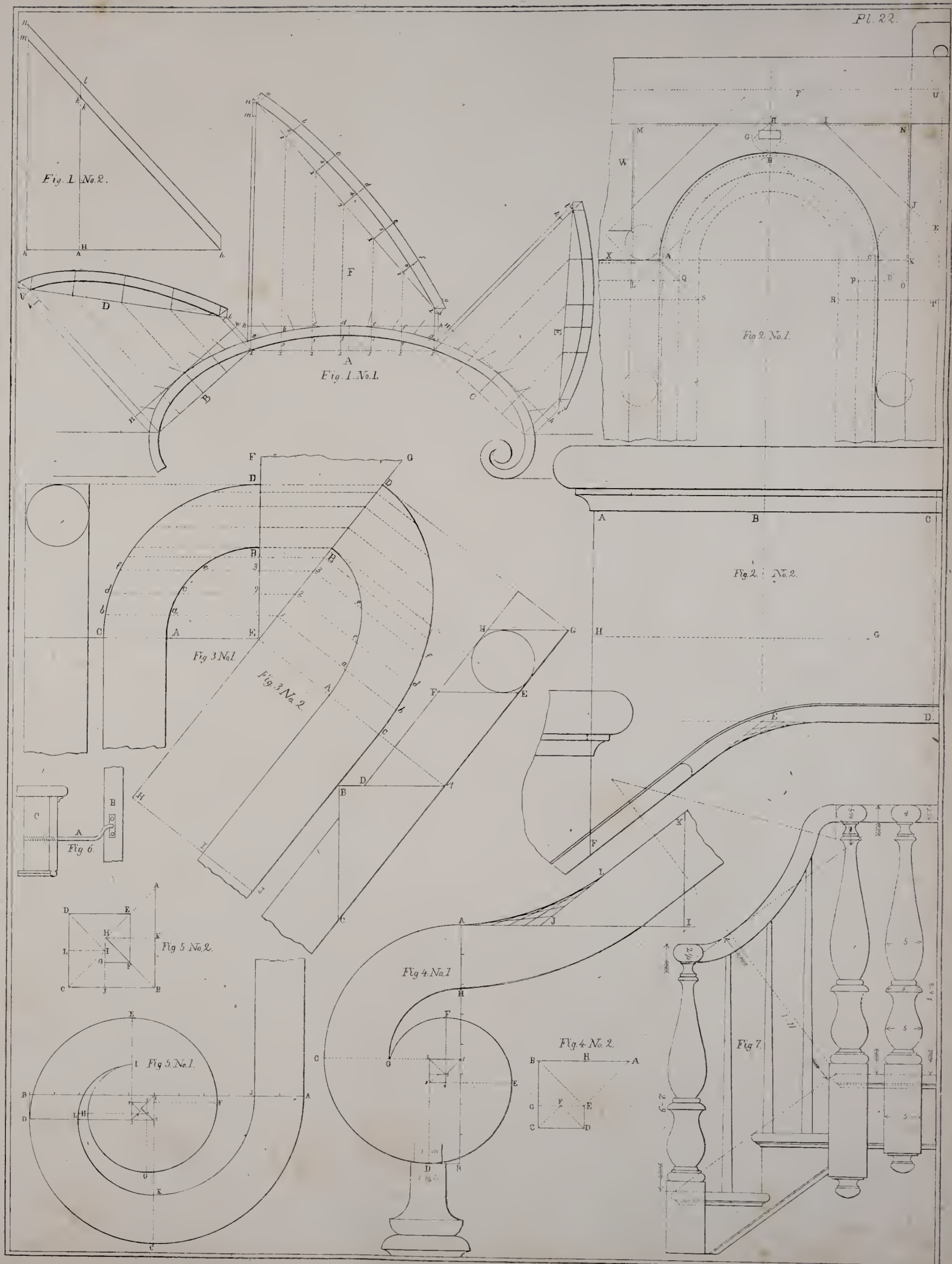
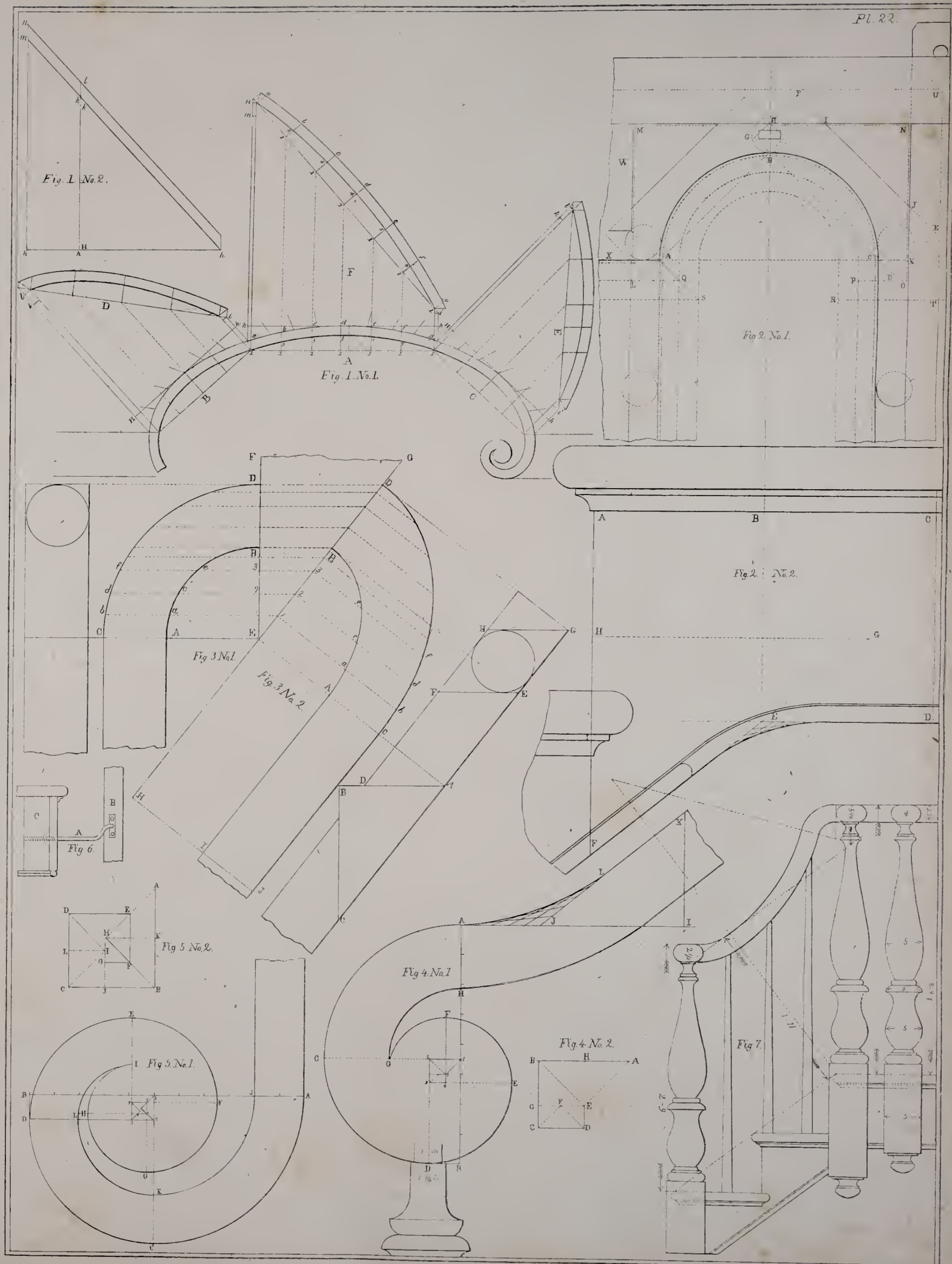
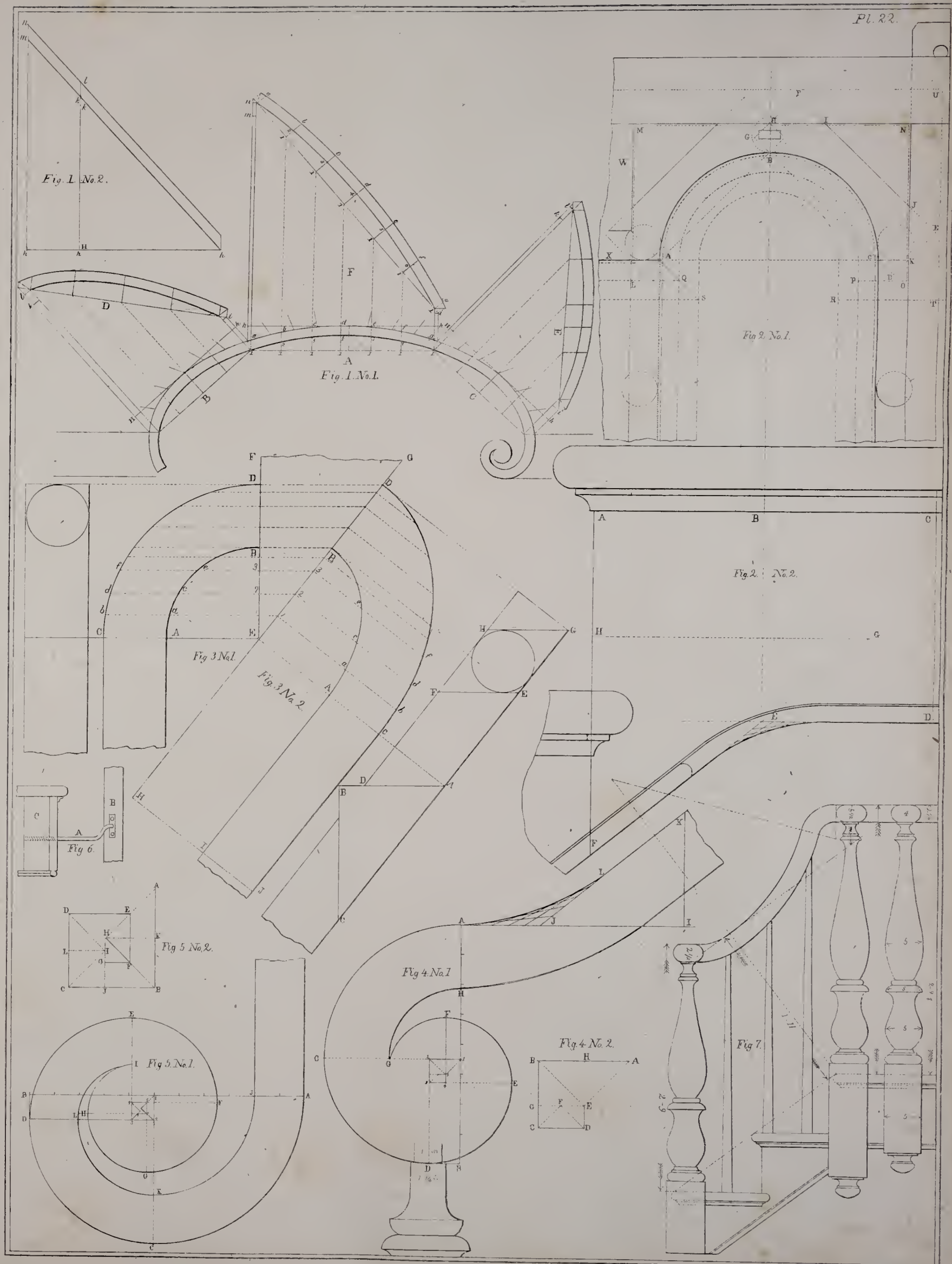
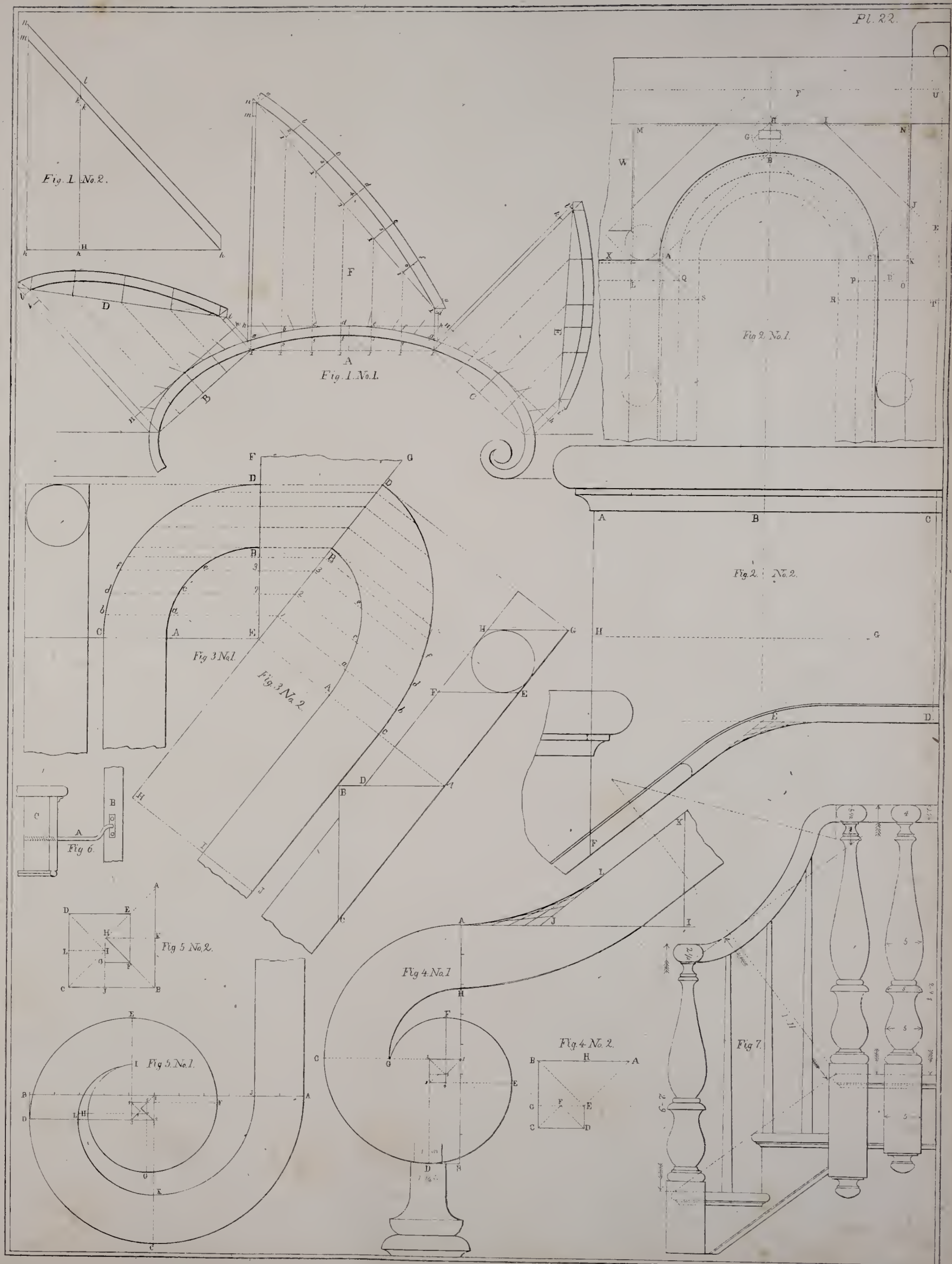


Fig 1

Fig 2

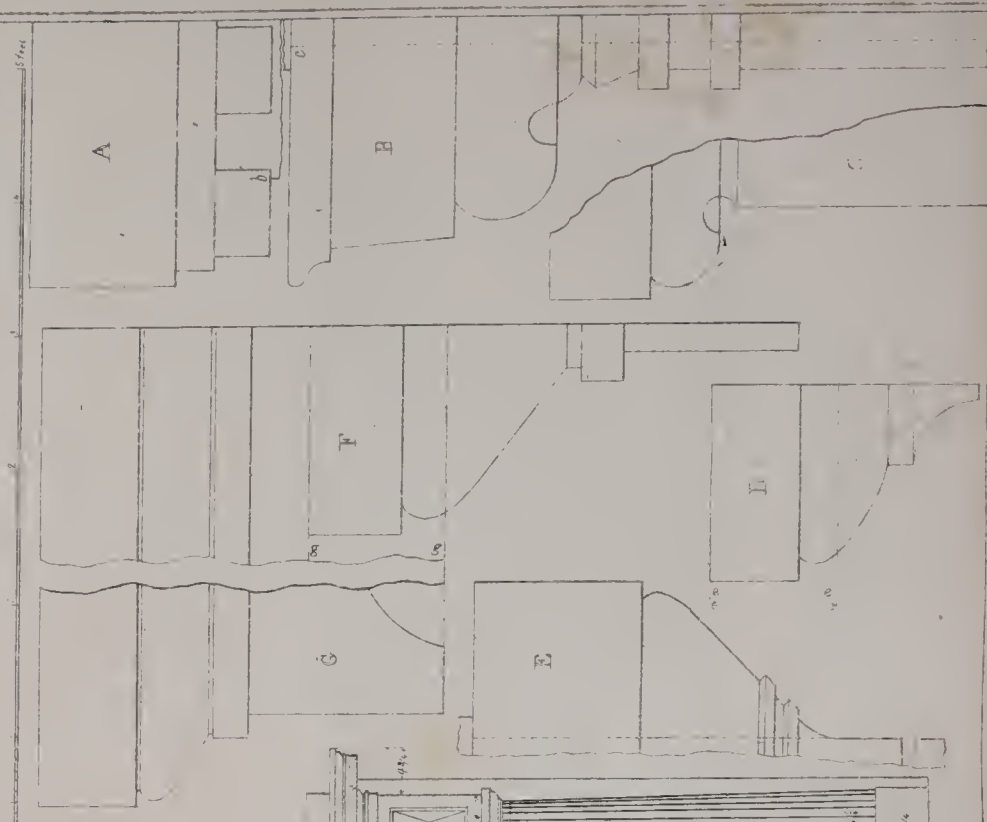
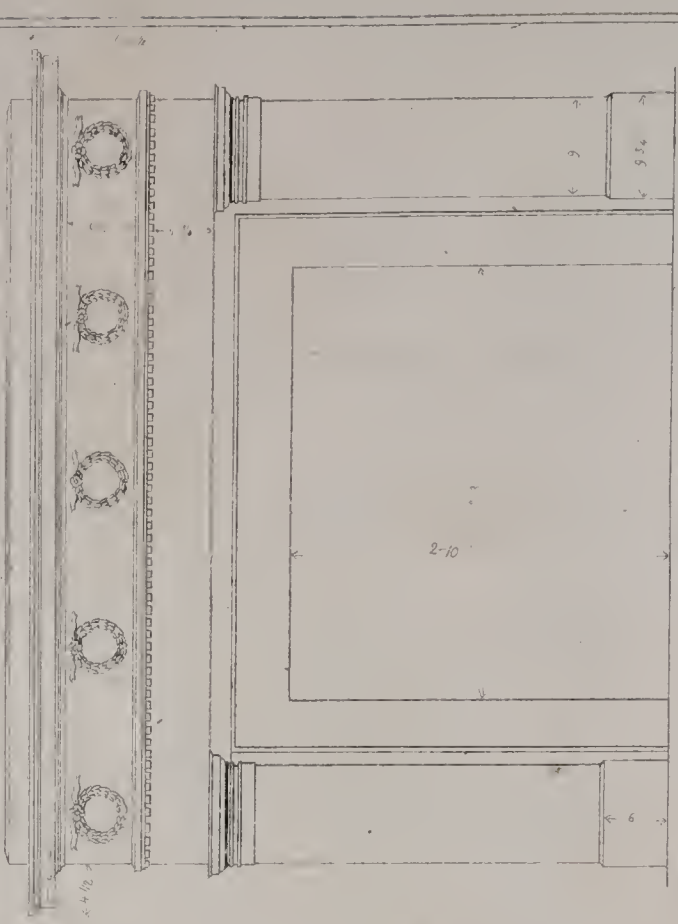
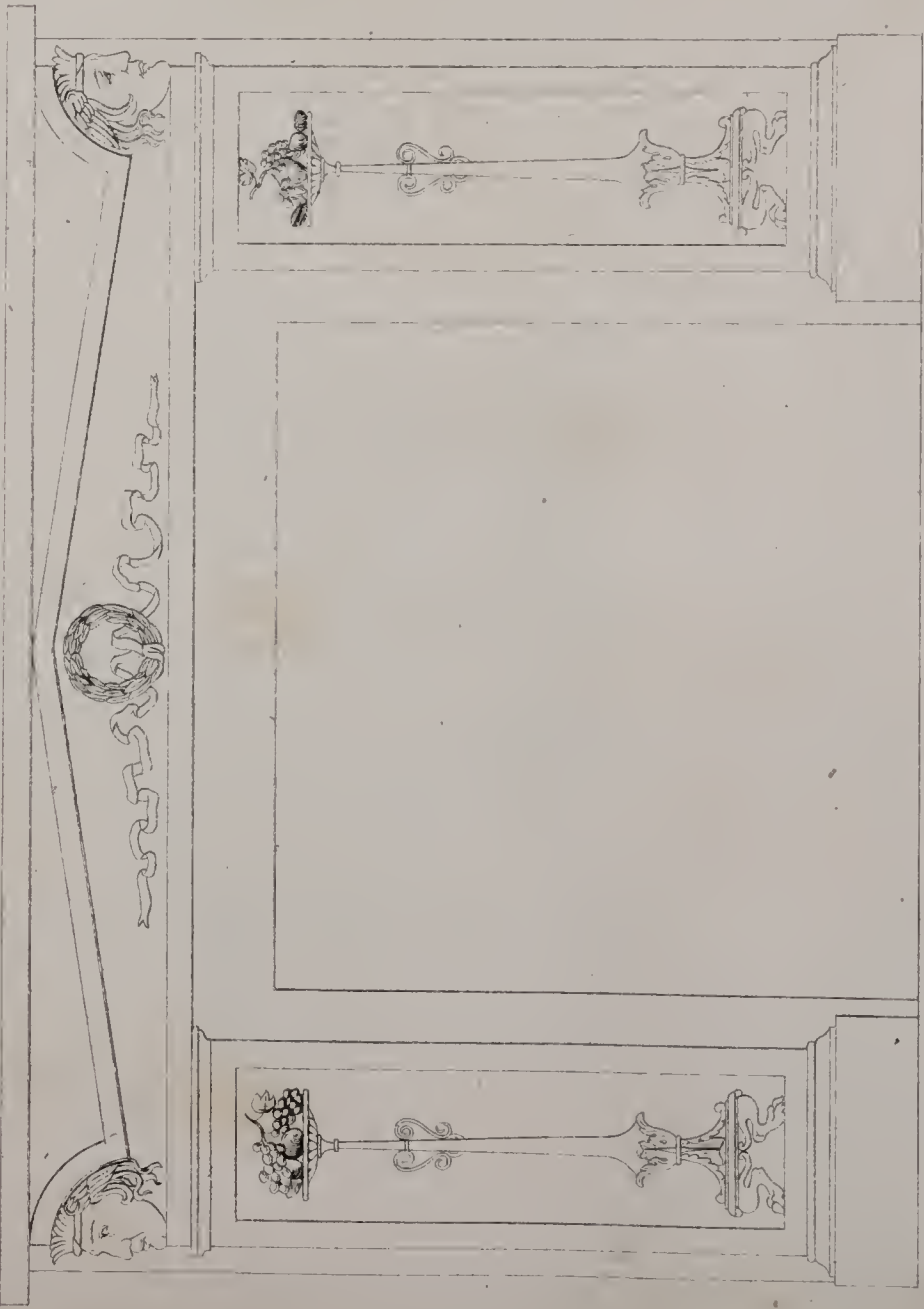
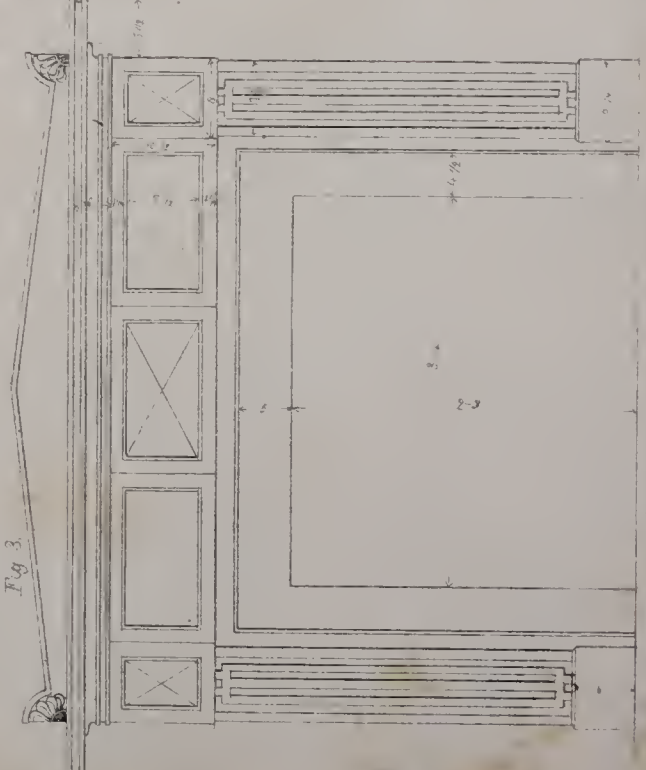
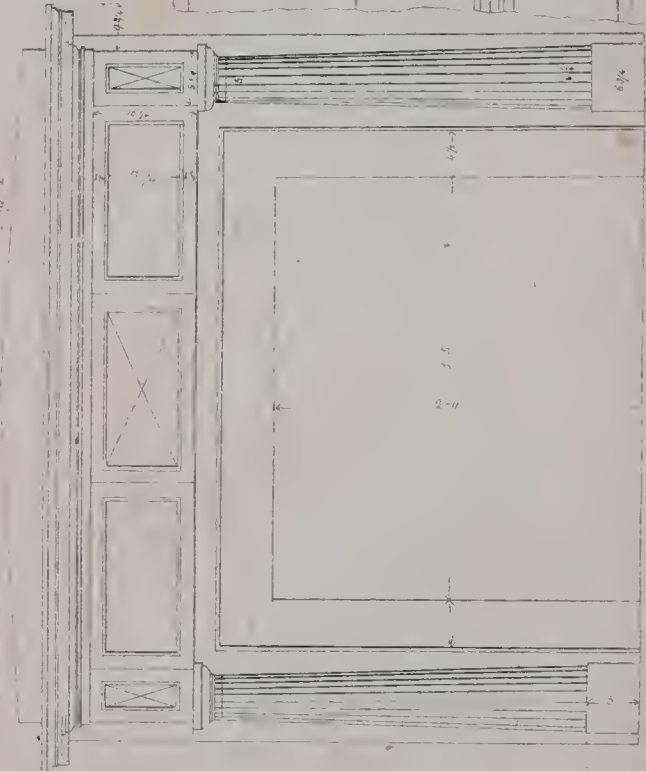


Fig 4

Fig 5



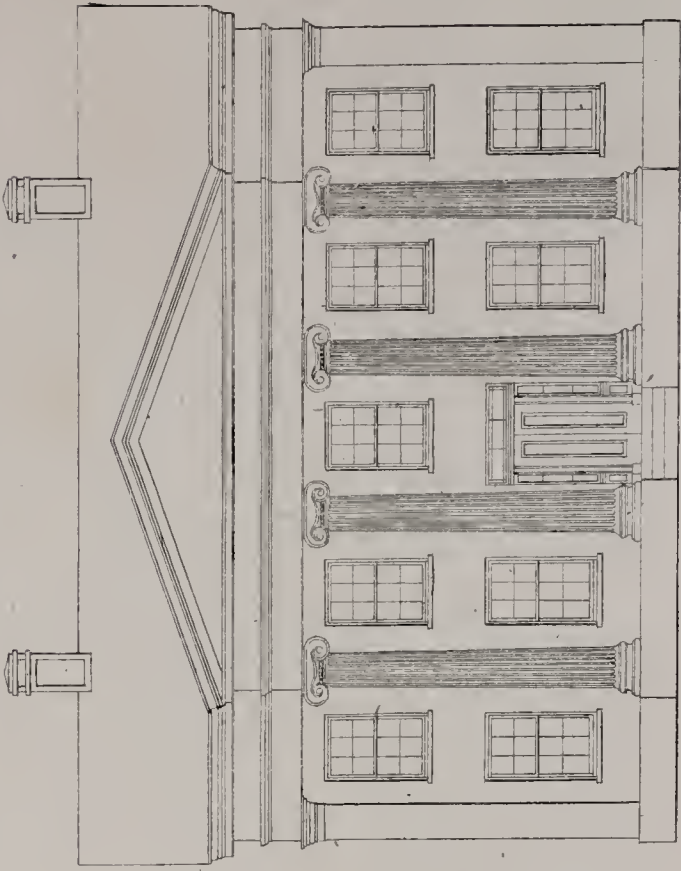
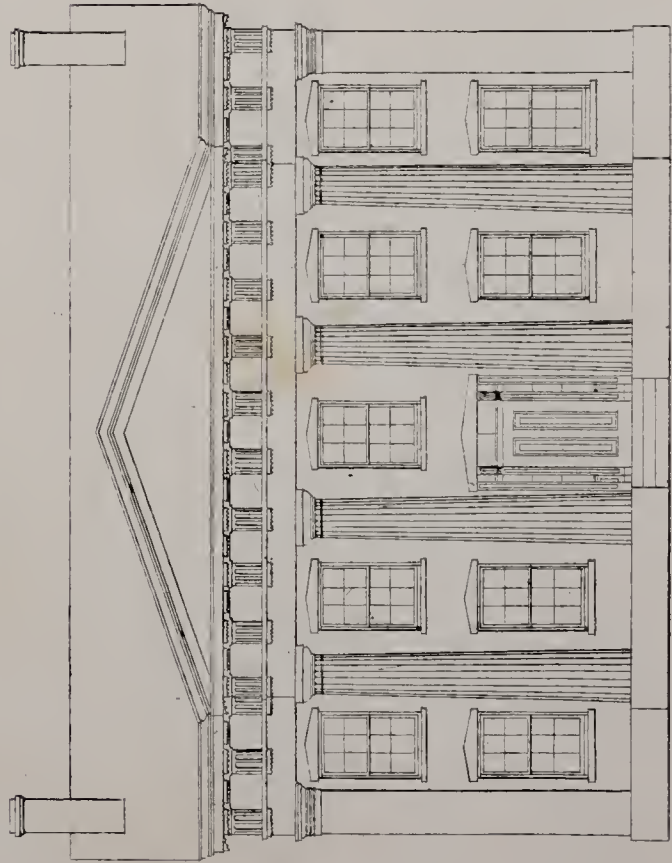


Fig 1

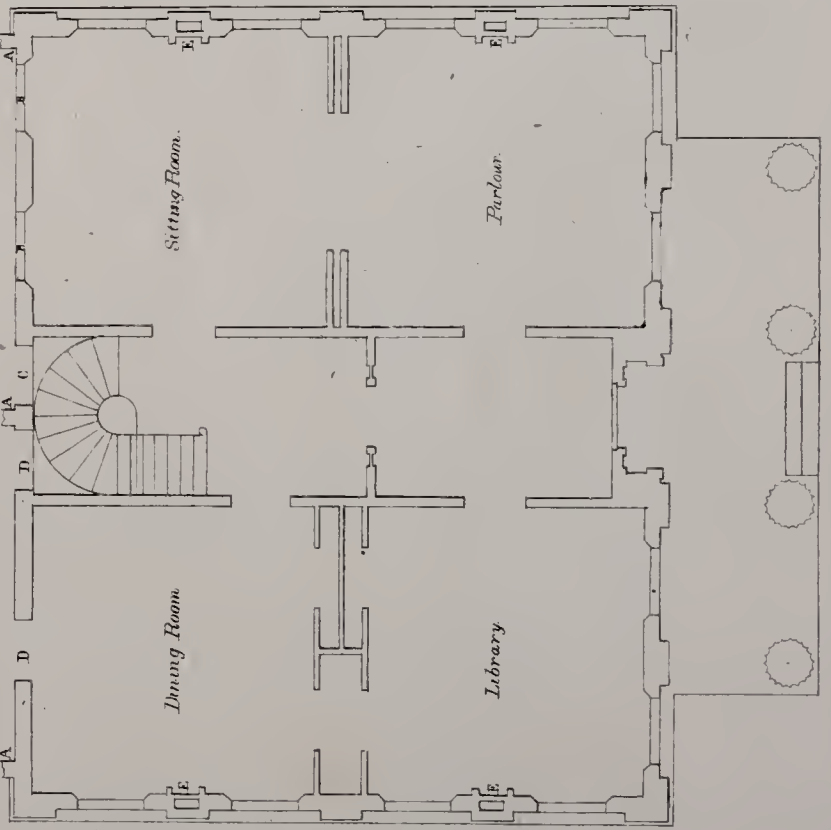
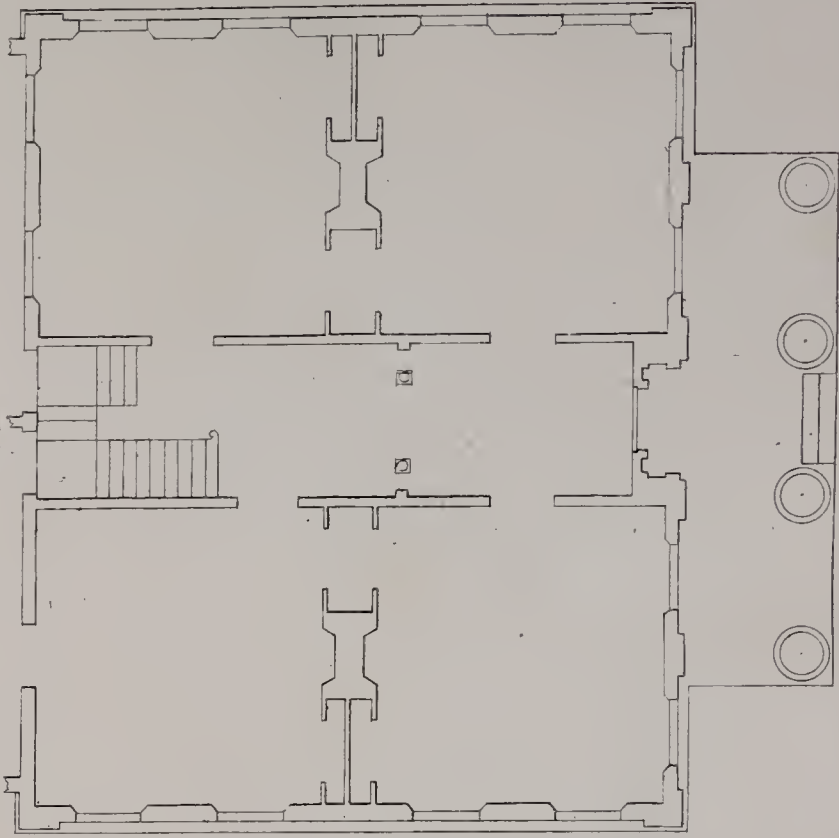


Fig 2



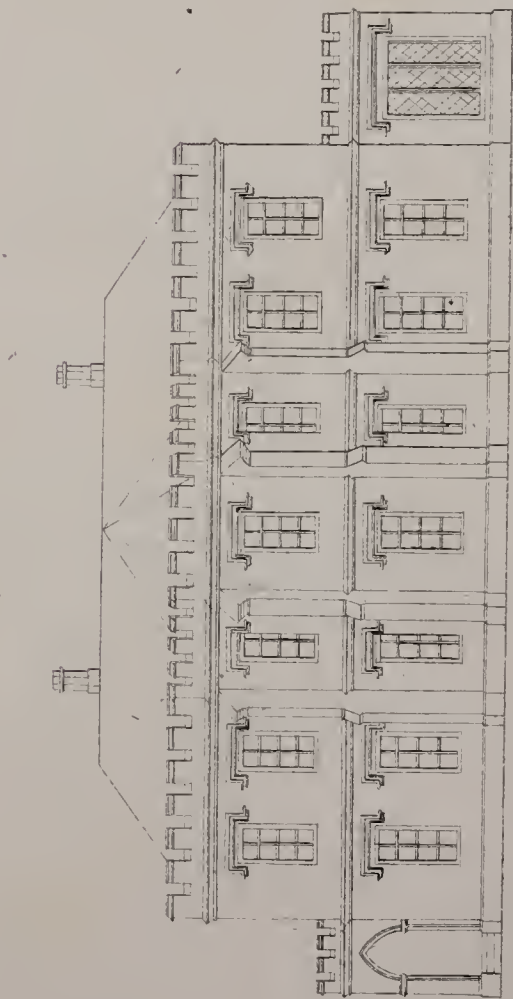


Fig. 1

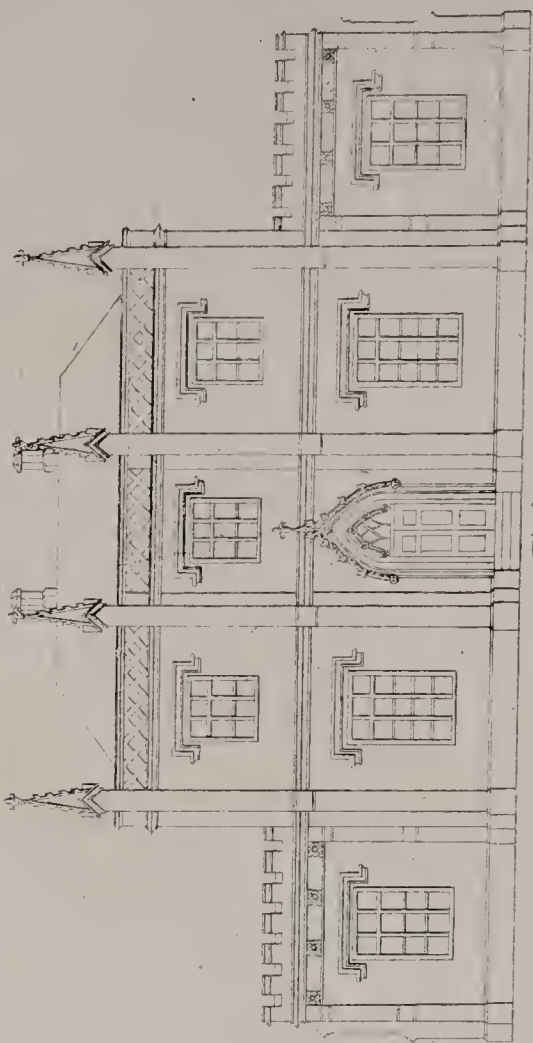


Fig. 3

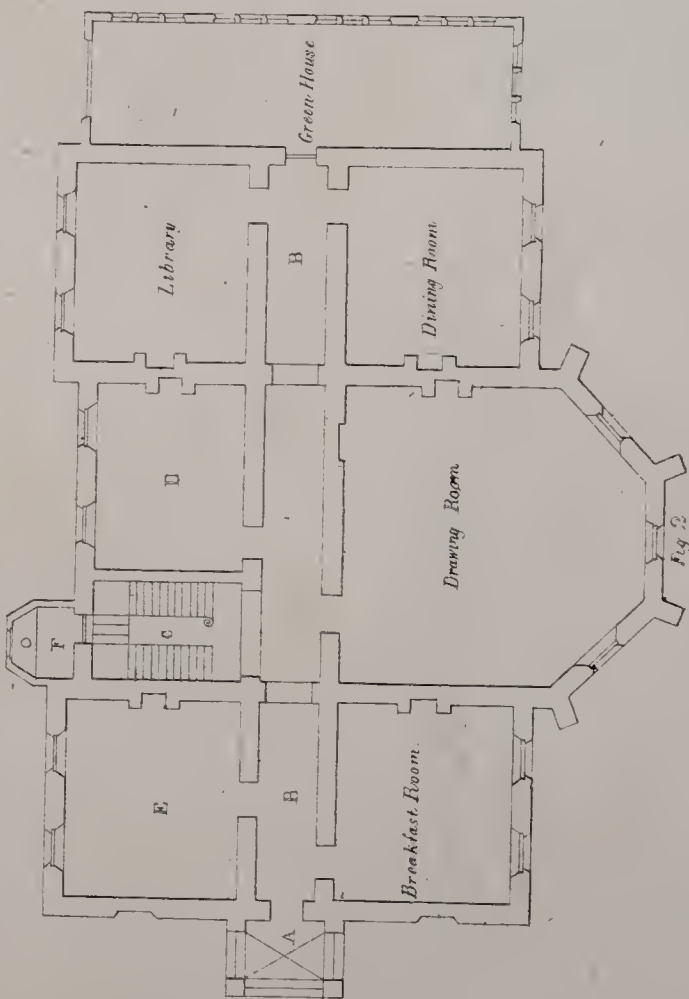


Fig. 2

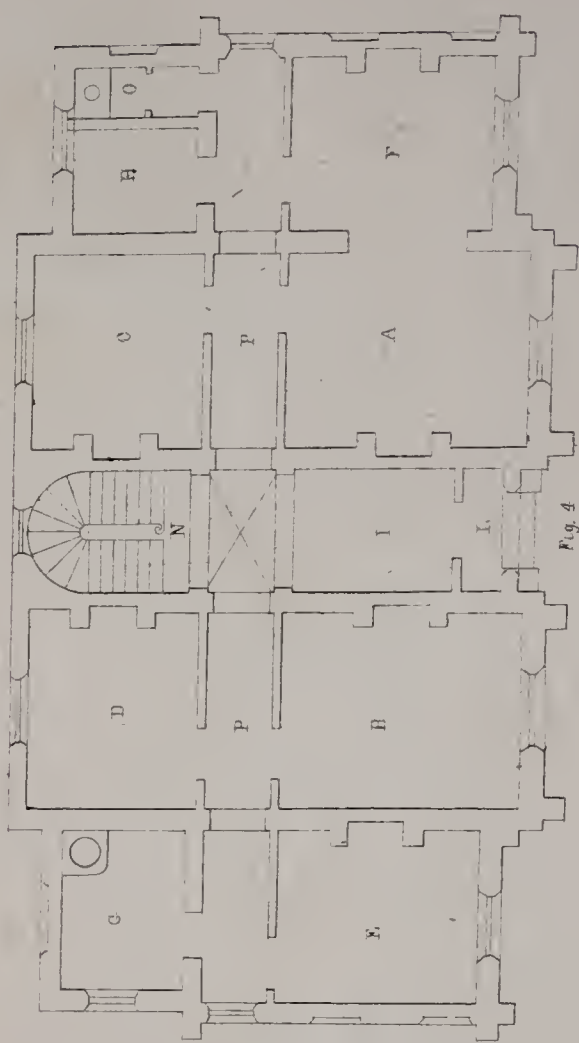


Fig. 4

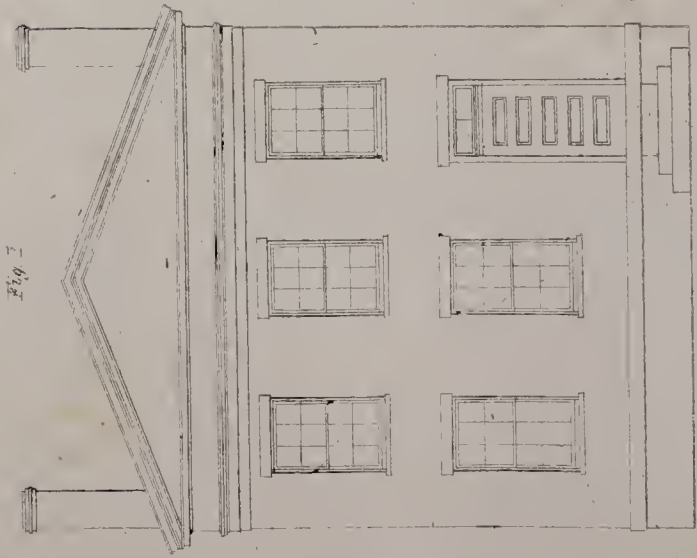


Fig. 1

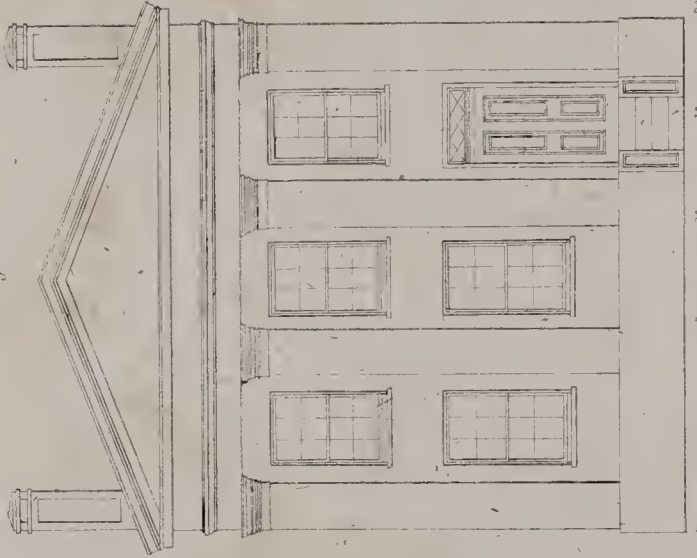


Fig. 2

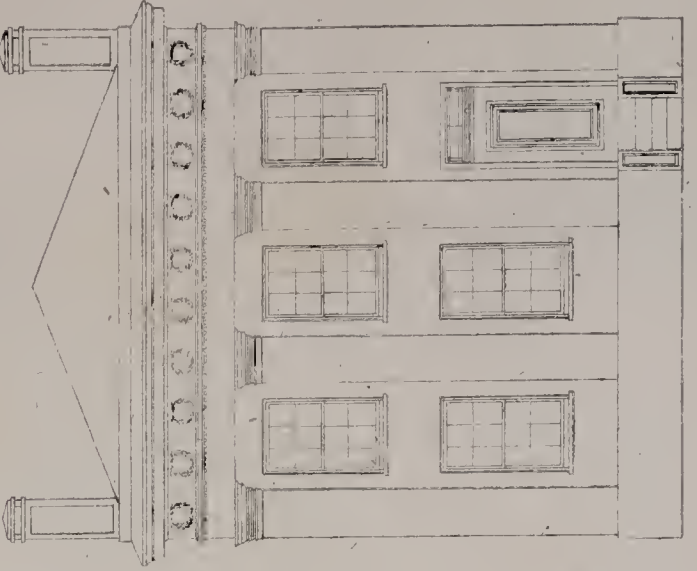


Fig. 3

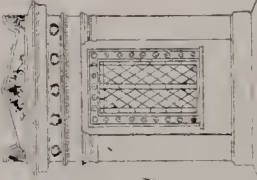


Fig. 4

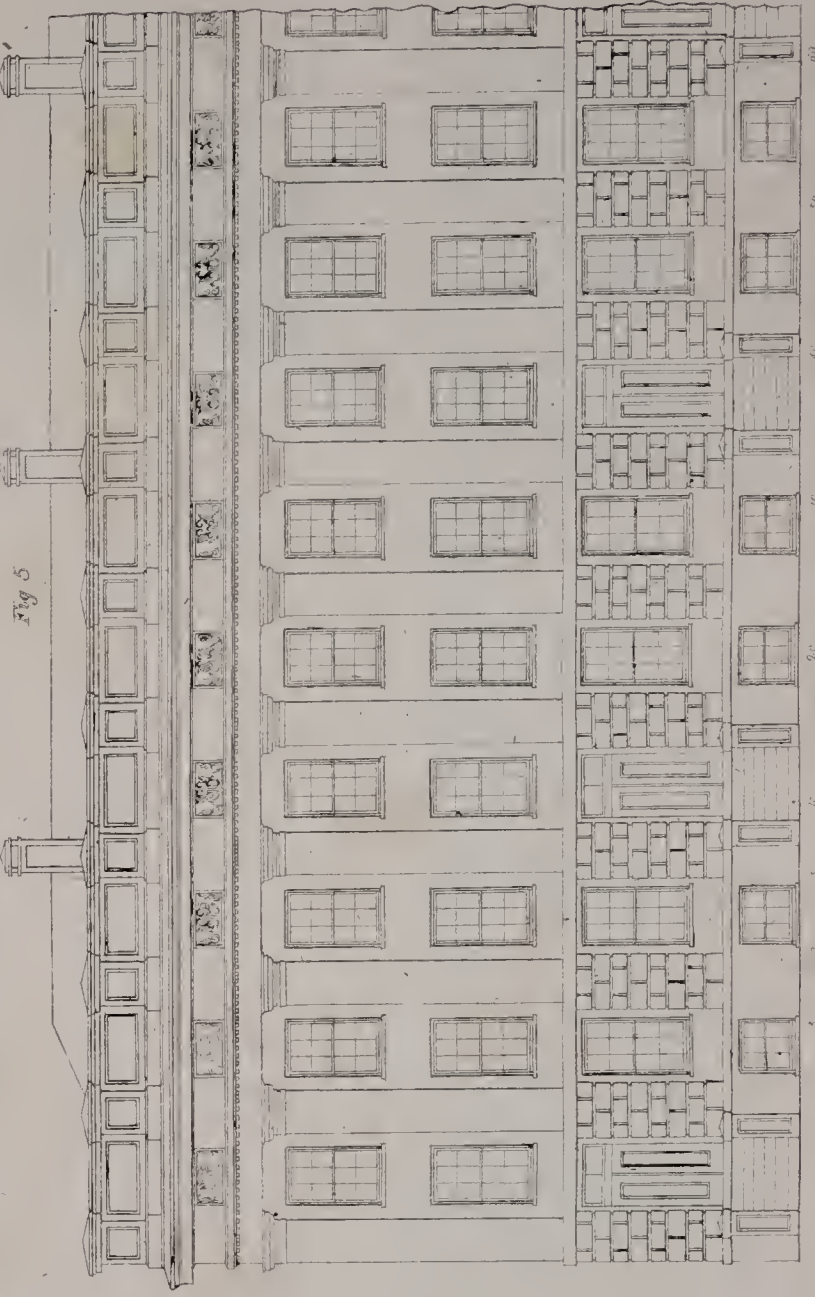
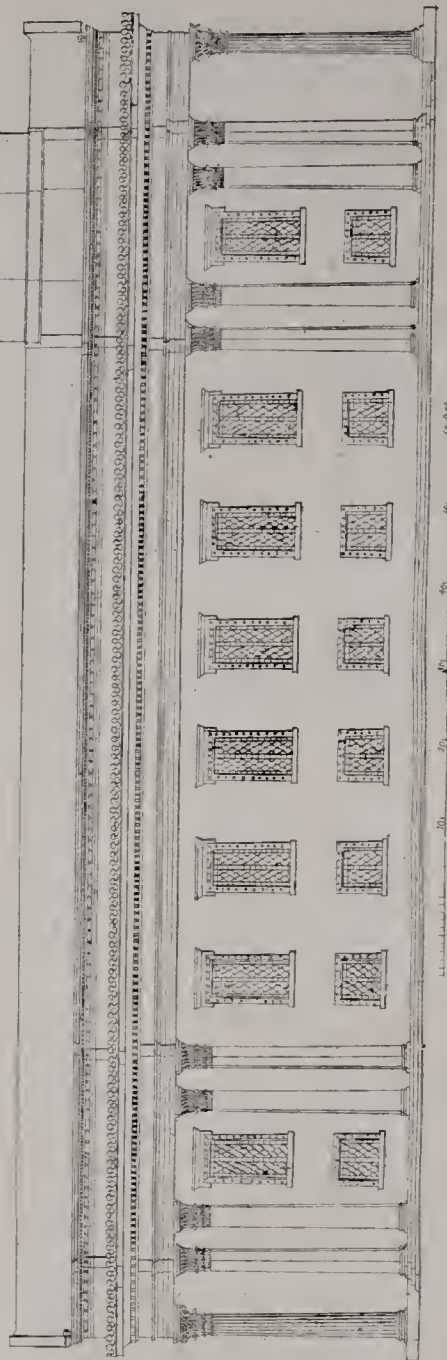
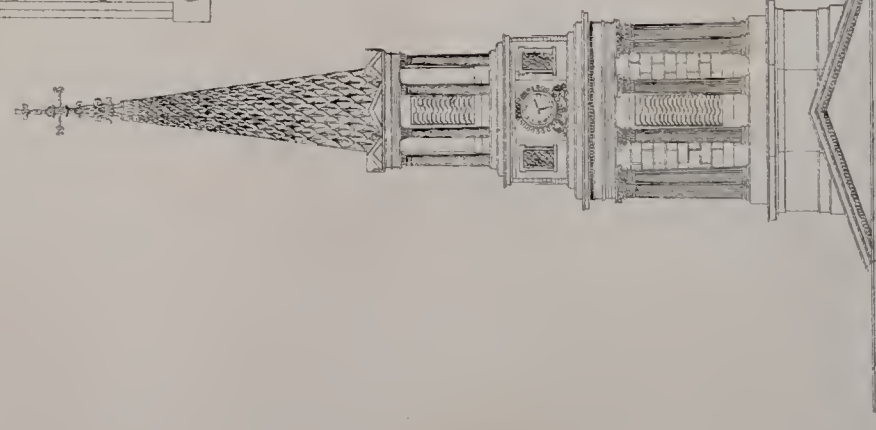
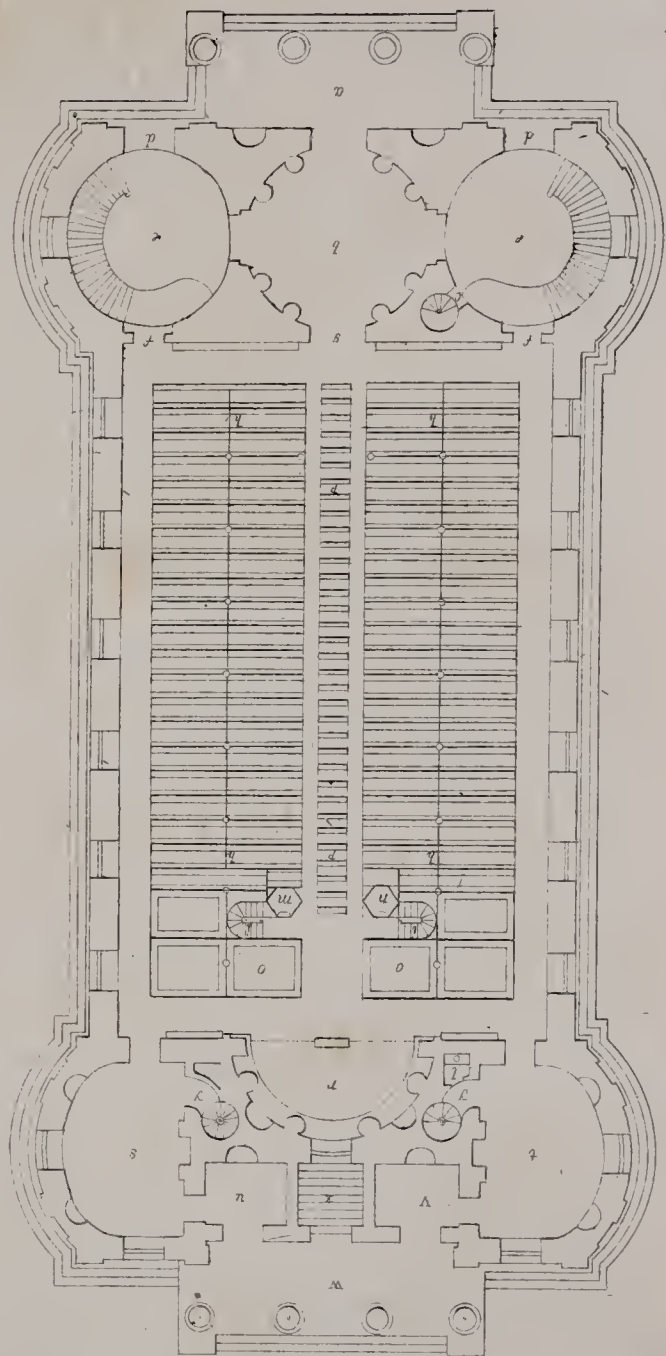
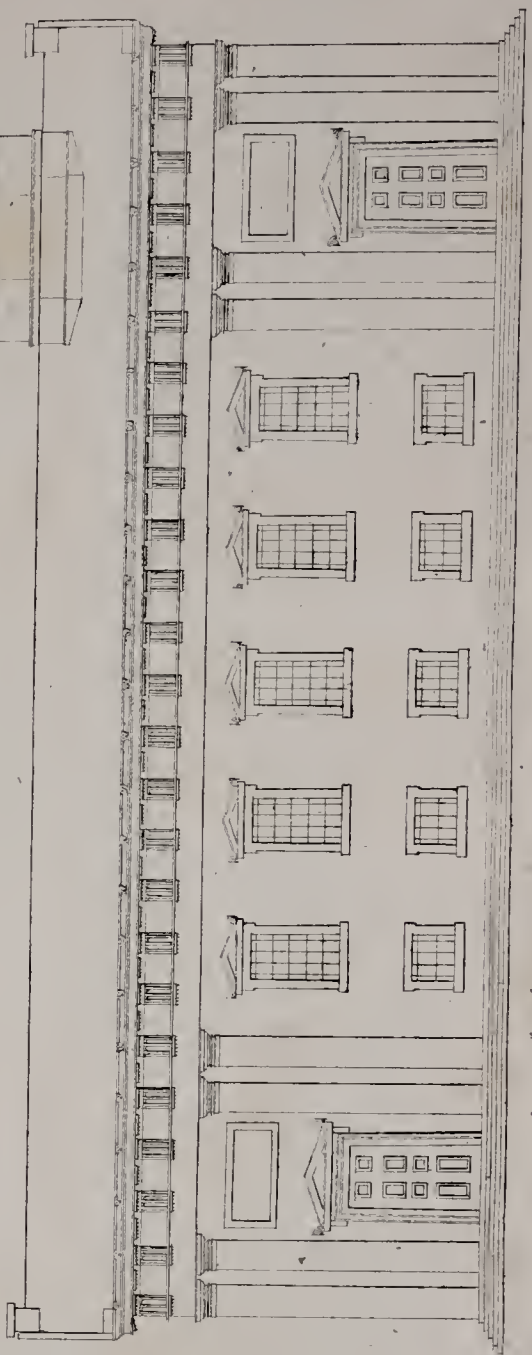
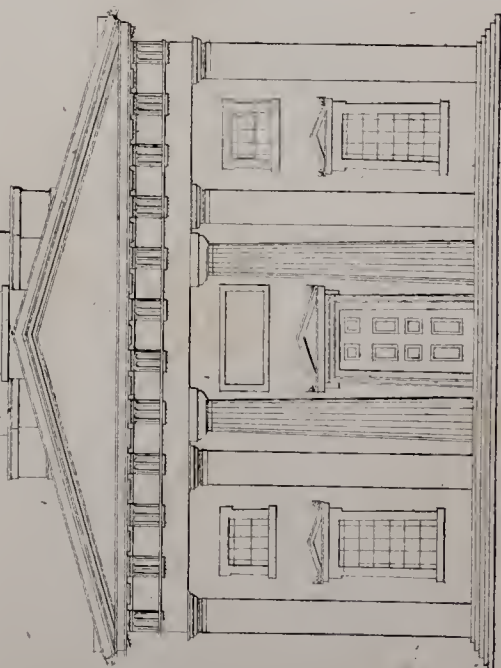
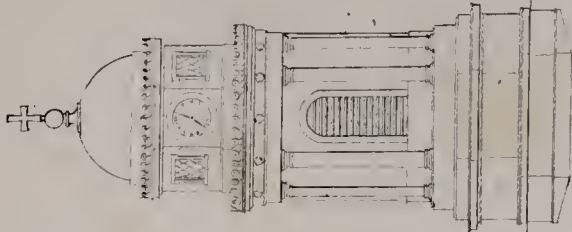
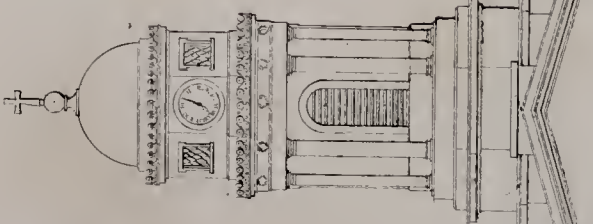
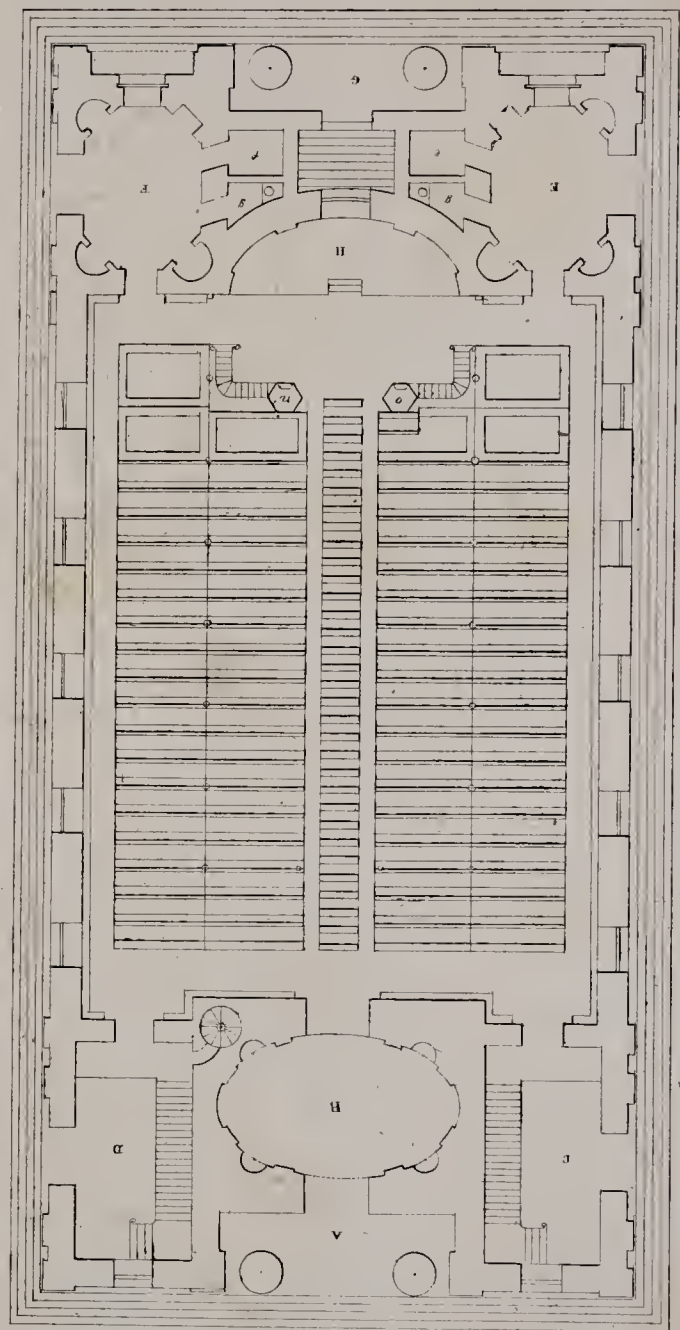


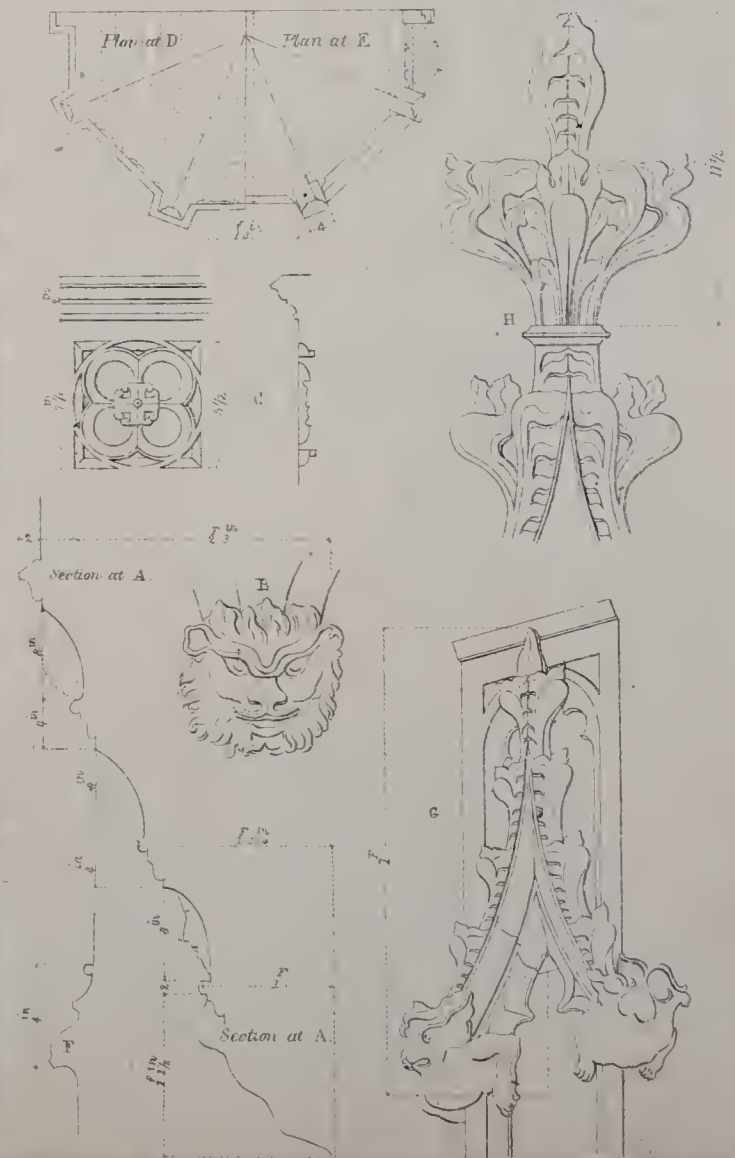
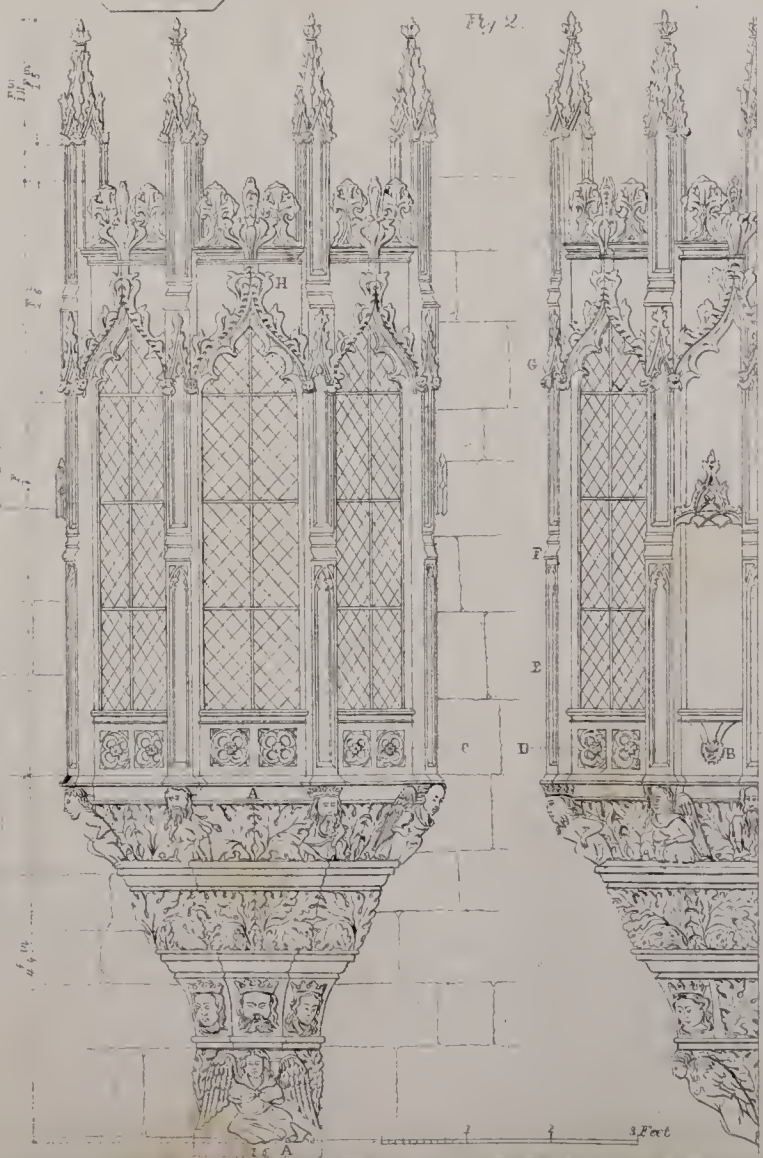
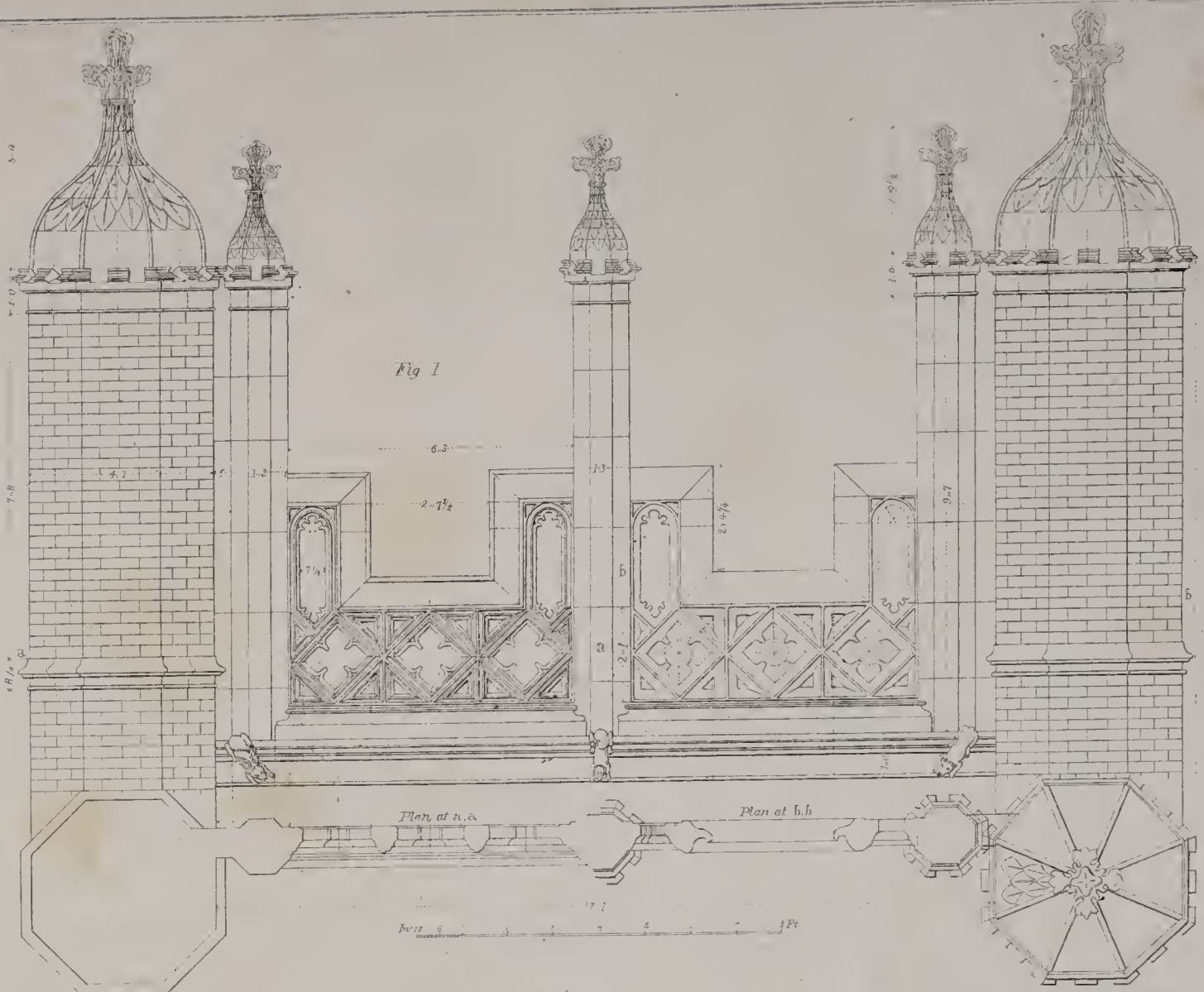
Fig. 5

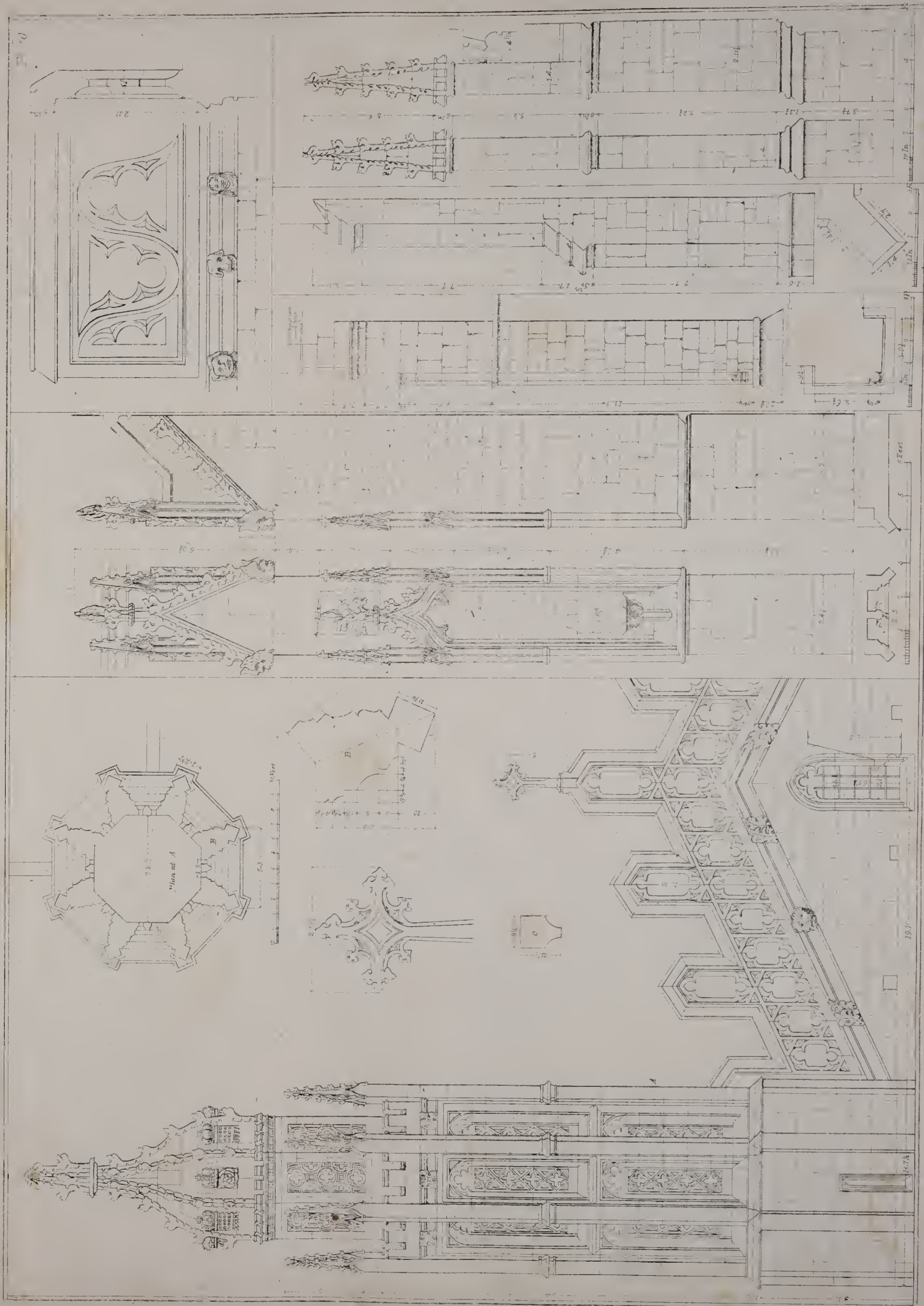


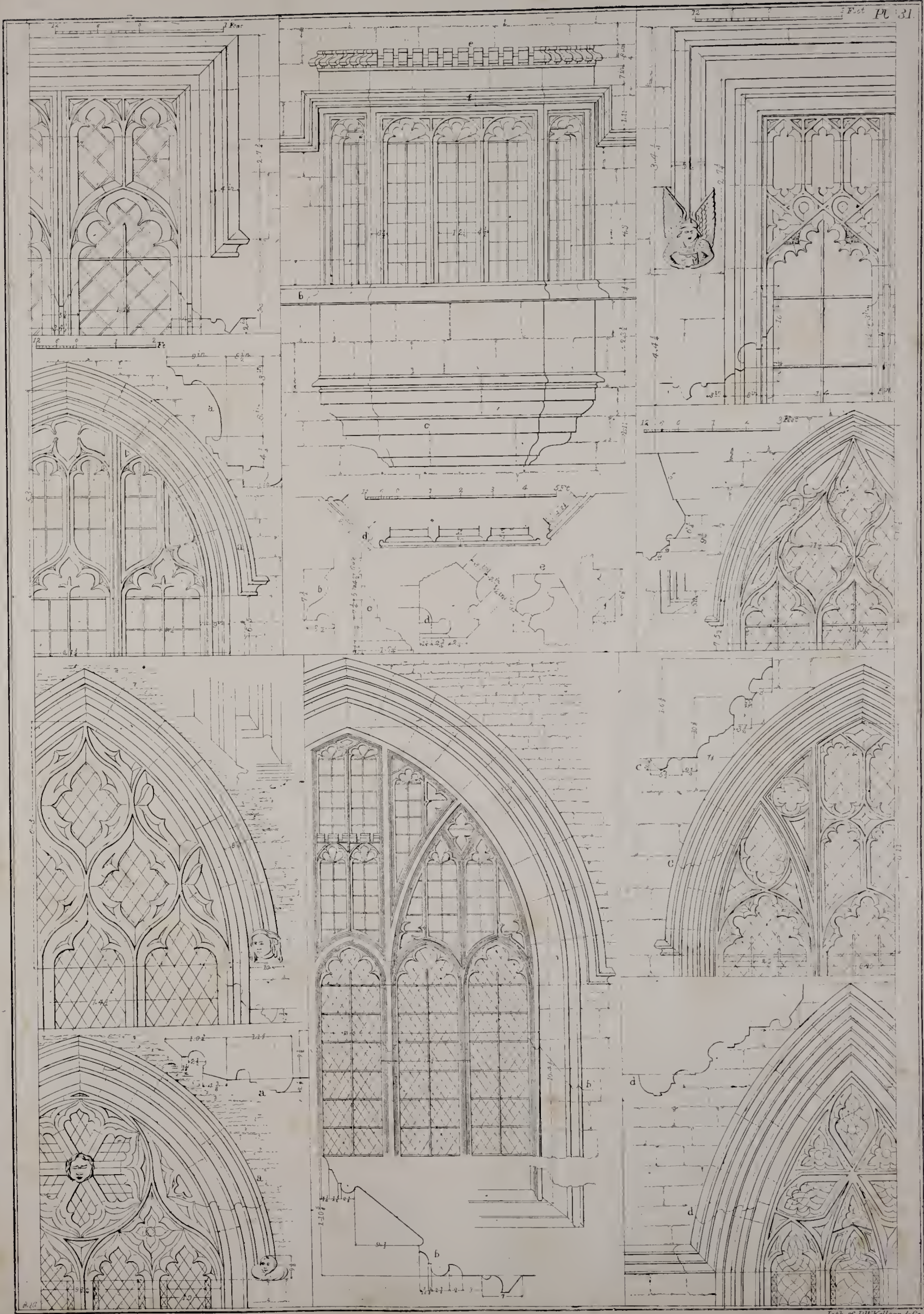


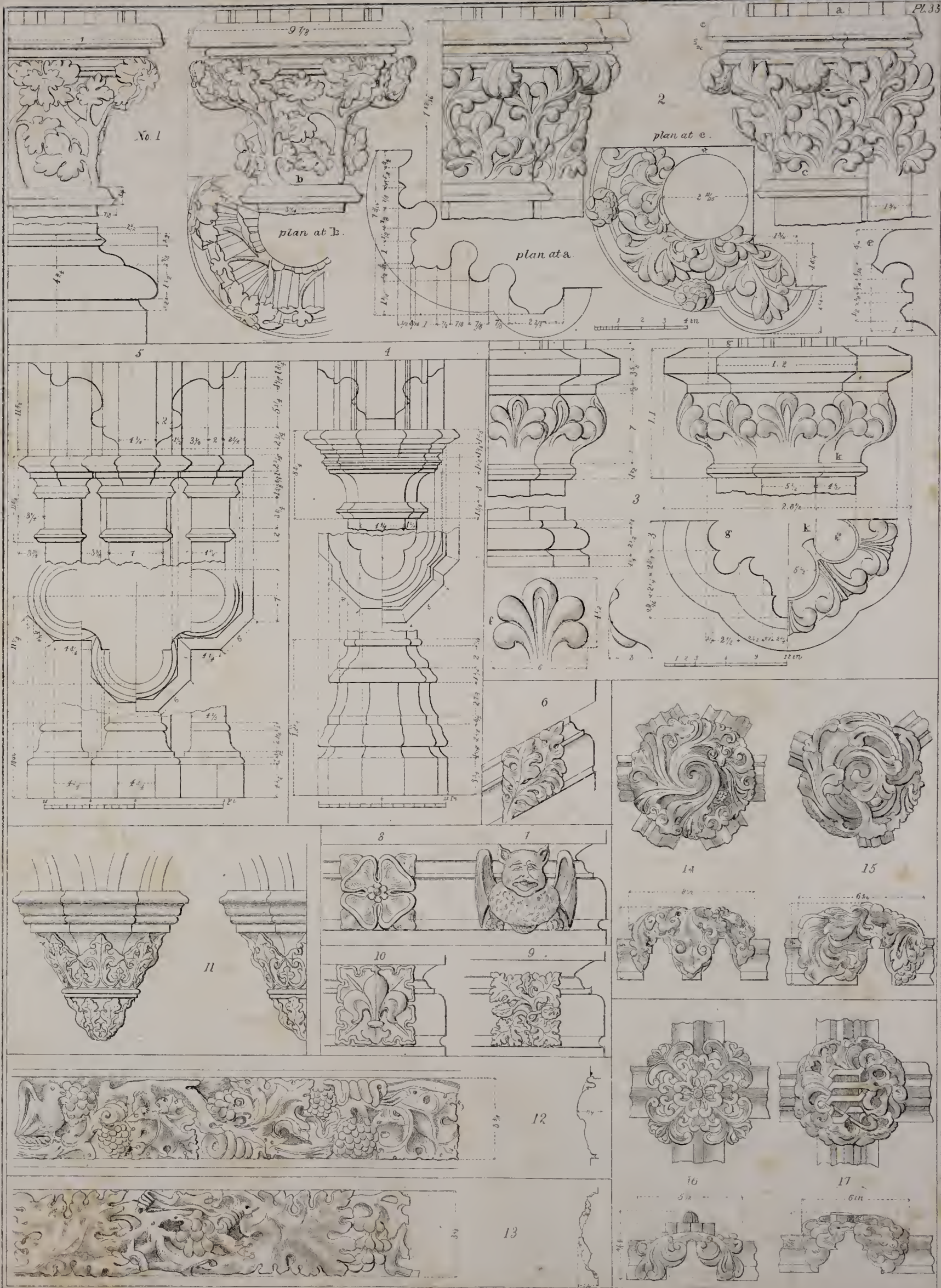
— 10 —

10









cornice to the top of the Cymatium, is 11 feet 6 inches: on the top, and at each extremity of which are placed *Acroteria*.

That part which projects beyond the bottom of the Cupola, is to admit light into the vestibule by means of six small windows in the faces of the pedestal of the Cupola, which is concealed within it. The windows in the belfry are 4 feet 5 inches wide, and 11 feet 6 inches high, to the top of the arch. The aperture of the latter is filled in with horizontal luffer-boarding. The pilasters round the belfry are 16 feet 6 inches high, and 1 foot 11 inches wide; the moulding in the caps, are the same as those in the front; the bars are similar to the attic base; the height of the entablature is 4 feet 2 inches, with wreaths in the frieze, and ornaments above the cornice.

The part above the belfry, which contains the clock-work, is of an octagonal form, with a cornice and continued ornament above, similar to that on the top of the cornice of the Monument of Lysicrates. (*Orders Plate XXIII.*)—The faces of the octagonal part is filled in with four dials, at right angles to each other, and four small windows, 3 feet 6 inches wide, and 3 feet high: the apertures of which are filled in with luffer-boarding, in the form of scales. Above the octagonal part is a circular dome raised upon a step, with a ball and cross over it.

Description of the *Flank Elevation*.—The whole length of this elevation is 142 feet between the two outer pilasters. That part between the pilasters, wherein the windows are, is 79 feet. The heights of the doors, pilasters, entablature, and cupola, are the same as those in the front elevation. The lower windows are 5 feet 4 inches wide, and 4 feet 7 inches high, and diminish at the top one inch and a half: the windows above these are 5 feet 4 inches wide, and 9 feet 8 inches high, and diminish 3 inches and three quarters at top. The architraves are 1 foot 1 inch and a half, with a break at top of about 2 inches on each side: over the top of the architrave is a cornice and a pediment, with a honey-suckle at each extremity.

GOTHIC ARCHITECTURE.

Although much has been said against this style of building, yet it must be acknowledged that we are indebted to Gothic Architects for many improvements in our present mode of construction. We find a lightness in Gothic designs, and a boldness in their execution, which the Greeks and Romans never attained, or the moderns duly appreciated till within the last century. Formerly every design which did not perfectly accord with Grecian or Roman models was censured as barbarous and unworthy the attention of modern architects: but an abatement of that enthusiastic zeal for classic structure which for a time universally prevailed in Europe, opened the way for a revolution in architecture. Within the last century, many Gothic buildings have been erected in Great Britain that are admirable both for the art with which they were designed, and the taste with which they were executed. The English Architect has studied the antiquities of his own country as well as those of Greece and Rome; and the Gothic abbeys, cathedrals, and baronial castles of his ancestors, are no longer considered as void of ornament or convenience. The ancient architecture of England is at the present period held in high esteem, and though the edifices of "olden times" are fast falling to ruin, yet a remembrance of them is preserved in the beautiful buildings which are erected in every part of the country, for worship; education, benevolence, and the accommodation of mankind.

It would afford me much satisfaction to speak of Gothic Architecture at considerable length, but the limits of the present work will not permit me to enter its history. If any person desires to be thoroughly acquainted with this style of building, he should examine the works of A. Pugin, where the subject is extensively treated of, and from which, the specimens here given were taken.

PLATE 29.—FIG. 1.—PLAN AND ELEVATION OF THE OPEN PARAPET AND TURRETS OVER THE WESTERN ENTRANCE OF HAMPTON COURT PALACE.

A succession of three gates with towers over them, leads from the western front to the interior of the place, where king William's buildings join to the ancient courts.

The embattled parapet here represented, has a very light airy effect; the tracery being all pierced, as is shown on the plan. The pinnacles, formed into slender copies of the turrets, instead of shooting up into pointed spires, as in earlier buildings, are peculiar to the latest period of Gothic taste. The same sort of pinnacle is seen upon the battlements of the hall, and in other parts of the palace.

Fig. 2.—Plan and Elevation of an Oriel Window, John of Gaunt's Palace, Lincoln.

The curious investigator of domestic antiquities will not fail to appreciate this remnant of a once splendid habitation. In delineating its form and enrichments, most scrupulous care has been taken to give a full and exact portrait: such an interesting specimen being very rarely seen. The elevations of the front and profile exhibit no more than what actually exists, except the tops of the pinnacles, which being broken off level with the foilage between them, are here restored in style corresponding with the ornaments; it may be also proper to notice, that three lights, which, no doubt, were once *cloised well with roiall glass*.—[*Old Romance of the Squire of Low Degree*] are now blocked up, and the mouldings partly obscured by plastering. The bracket which sustains the frame of the window, is covered with sculpture, divided by plain mouldings into four tiers. The lowest of these consists of a single figure, representing an angel, serving

as a bracket. The next has three marks, or faces; viz. at the right, a queen, in front, a king; on the left, a bearded man, rather defaced. Above these runs a course of foilage, displayed in large leaves. The uppermost division has six figures, one beneath each of the little abutments, which guard the angles of the window. Against the wall on the right hand, is a man covered with hair, and with a long beard, holding a bird in one hand, in the other a branch; next to him, an angel playing upon a cithern: Then a king with a long beard, on his left hand, an old man clothed in a mantle; beyond this figure, a youth in a close robe; and lastly, against the wall, a bearded man, rather disfigured. A plan, or horizontal section, taken at two different heights, is drawn in the upper part of the Plate, D, E; below is an enlarged section of the bracket, showing the projection of all its mouldings, with their several measurements. These details are also represented separately, with letters referring to the elevations B. Head upon the little bracket of one of the niches, in the two blank lights. CA panel, with section, of those beneath the lights. F loping of a buttress. H Finial rising from the crockets over every light. All examination of the interior of the oriel is unfortunately obstructed by a modern chimney, built up within it.

PLATE 30.—TURRET AND GABLE OF KING'S COLLEGE CHAPEL, CAMBRIDGE.

The chapel of King's College, Cambridge, has been as much celebrated as any Gothic building in Europe, so that nothing need be said here respecting the general character of its architecture. At the left of this Plate represents the upper part of one of the four lofty turrets which adorn its angles; with a portion of the adjoined gable. The turrets are corniced up without any ornament as high as the battlements of the roof, above which they are beautifully decorated, as is shown in the Plate. The character of these decorations deserves a particular examination; the projections and recesses are bold and decisive, producing a clear and distinct effect even at the great height they are placed. The fretted compartments in the sides are pierced quite through the walls, giving light to the interior, and making the turrets appear very rich on the outside. The armorial badges and crowns refer to Henry VII., who contributed very largely to the completion of the structure, though it was not effected in his day. A, Plan, taking in the lower compartments of the elevation. B, one corner of the same on a larger scale. C, Mullion. An enlarged elevation of the Cross upon the crest of the gable.

To the right of this Plate are designs of buttresses and one battlement, as taken from Oxford.

Plate 31.—Exhibits a number of designs of windows, as taken from different Churches and other Edifices from Oxford.

Plate 32.—Figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, are Cornices from Westminster Abbey and Henry VII's Chapel.

The sections of these six specimens are drawn on a larger scale than the front views, the better to show the turns of the mouldings.

Figs. 1, 2, and 4 have *crests* of small battlements above the cornices, and their casements are studded with small ornaments of *entail*, set at intervals.—Figs. 3 and 5 have *crests* of leaves, arranged to a pattern of great elegance, and which was very frequently used in the 15th century. The *crest* of Fig. 6, appears to have been broken off. This specimen being of wood, the *entail* is worked on a thin piece, inserted afterwards into the *casement*.

Figures 7, 8, 9 and 10, are specimens of Parapets from St. George's Chapel, Windsor.

The upper roof of this magnificent structure is guarded by a straight parapet pierced in compartments; whilst the aisles have an embattled parapet, which is also pierced. These last four examples that are exhibited on this Plate, the cornices is studded with heads, grotesque and ludicrous, agreeably to the fashion of the age in which the building was erected, when exhibitions of masques and mummeries entertained the gravest and most polished characters, no less than the lowest classes of society.

The elevation and corresponding section of each of these specimens seem to require no explanation.

Plate 33.—Exhibits a number of designs for Capitals and bases of Pillars, Brackets and sculptured Ornaments, &c.

Nos. 1, 2 and 3, shows three specimens of foilated capitals, with their respective bases. It may be useful to observe, that in designing a capital of this sort, the *corps* or solid part, ought to be proportioned before any ornaments of leaves, flowers, &c. are applied; a small *neck-mould* is required to distinguish the capital from the shaft, and over the leaves a *hood-mould* such as that marked *c* in the second specimen. By comparing the letters on the sections with the corresponding ones on the elevations, the whole will be clearly explained. Nos. 1 and 2 are of the latter end of the 14th century; No 3 of the early part of the same, or the end of the 13th.

Nos. 4 and 5.—Exhibit two specimens of Capitals and Bases, of a plain description, they being finished with mouldings only, without foilage. The mouldings are expressed in feet and inches by figures, and they clearly show the manner in which the arches are set upon the pillars, and will be found carefully marked, and the size and form of each pillar.

Nos. 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10, are enrichments of cornices.

No. 11, a design of a corble; which is sculptured with leaves, after the form of the capital of a column.

Nos. 12 and 13, are specimens of running foilage, fruit, &c.

Nos. 14, 15, 16 and 17, are specimens of *knots* on the intersections of ribs, in roofs, these are all shown in profile, as well as in front. In 17, the letters IHS, an abbreviation of the sacred name Jesus, are wrought amongst the foilage.

APPENDIX—DECIMAL FRACTIONS.

DECIMAL FRACTIONS.

Fractions or Vulgar Fractions are expressions for any assignable part of an unit; they are usually denoted by two numbers, placed one above the other, with a line between them: thus, $\frac{1}{4}$ denotes the fraction one-fourth, or one part of four of some whole quantity, considered as divisible into four equal parts. The lower number 4 is called the *denominator* of the fraction, shewing into how many parts whole or integer is divided; and the upper number 1, is called the *numerator*, and shews how many of those equal parts are contained in the fraction. And it is evident that if the numerator and denominator be varied in the same ratio, the value of the fraction will remain unaltered: thus if the numerator and denominator of the fraction $\frac{1}{4}$ be multiplied by 2, 3, or 4, &c. the fractions arising will be $\frac{2}{8}$, $\frac{3}{12}$, $\frac{4}{16}$, &c. which are evidently equal to $\frac{1}{4}$.

Decimal Fraction is a fraction whose denominator is always an unit with some number of ciphers annexed, the numerators of which may be any numbers whatever; as $\frac{1}{10}$, $\frac{3}{100}$, $\frac{15}{1000}$, &c. And as the denominator of a decimal is always one of the numbers 10, 100, 1000, &c. the inconvenience of writing these denominators may be avoided, by placing a point between the integral and the fractional part of the number; thus $\frac{3}{10}$ is written .3; and $\frac{14}{100}$ is written .14; the *mixed number* $3\frac{4}{100}$, consisting of whole numbers and fractional ones, is written 3.14.

In setting down a decimal fraction, the numerator must consist of as many places as there are ciphers in the denominator; and if it has not so many figures the defect must be supplied by placing ciphers before them; thus, $\frac{16}{10000} = .0016$, &c. And as ciphers on the right hand side of integers increase their value in a tenfold proportion, as .2, .20, .200, &c. so when set on the left hand of decimal fractions, they decrease their value in a tenfold proportion, as .2, .02, .002, &c. but ciphers being set on the right hand of these fractions can make no alteration in their value, neither in their increase or their decrease; thus .2

is the same as .20 or .200. The common arithmetical operations are performed the same way in decimals, as they are integers; regard being had only to the particular notation, to distinguish the integral from the fractional part of a sum.

ADDITION OF DECIMALS.

Addition of decimals is performed exactly like that of whole numbers, placing the numbers of the same denomination under each other, in which case the decimal separating points will range straight in one column.

EXAMPLES.

Miles.	Feet.	Inches.
34.6	4.30	4.53
45.18	3.44	127.05
126.306	12.25	.047
.004	1.346	35.6
Sum 206.090	21.336	167.227

SUBTRACTION OF DECIMALS.

Subtraction of decimals is performed in the same manner as in whole numbers, by observing to set the figures of the same denomination and the separating points directly under each other.

EXAMPLES.

From	35.345	54.46	2.340	1246.2
Take	3.23	.032	.286	25.164
	32.115	54.428	2.054	1211.036

MULTIPLICATION OF DECIMALS.

Multiply the numbers together the same as if they were whole numbers, and point off as many decimals on the right hand as there are decimals in both factors together; and when it happens that there are not so many figures in the product as there must be decimals, then prefix as many ciphers to the left hand as will supply the defect.

EXAMPLE I.

Multiply 4.35 by 5.6

$$\begin{array}{r} 4.35 \\ \times 5.6 \\ \hline 2610 \\ 2175 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Answer 24.360

In one of the factors is one decimal, and in the other two, their sum 3 is the number of decimals of the product.

EXAMPLE II.

Multiply 0.6 by 0.8.

$$\begin{array}{r} 0.6 \\ \times 0.8 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Answer 0.48

EXAMPLE III.

Multiply 4.33 by .04.

$$\begin{array}{r} 4.33 \\ \times .04 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Answer 17.32

EXAMPLE IV.

Multiply .12 by .09

$$\begin{array}{r} .12 \\ \times .09 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Answer .0108

In each of the factors are two decimals, the product ought therefore to contain 4, and there being only 3 figures in the product I prefix a cipher.

EXAMPLE V.

Multiply .16 by 26.

$$\begin{array}{r} .16 \\ \times 26 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 96 \\ 32 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Answer 4.16

EXAMPLE VI.

Multiply 33.2 by 2.5.

$$\begin{array}{r} 33.2 \\ \times 2.5 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1660 \\ 664 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Answer 83.00

DIVISION OF DECIMALS.

Division of Decimals is performed in the same manner as in whole numbers; only observing that the number of decimals in the quotient, must be equal to the excess of the number of decimals of the dividend above those of the divisor.—When the divisor contains more decimals than the dividend, ciphers must be affixed to the right hand of the latter to make the number equal or exceed that of the divisor.

EXAMPLE I.

Divide 14.625 by 3.25.

$$\begin{array}{r} 3.25 \overline{) 14.625} \\ 1300 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1625 \\ 1625 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

In this example there are 2 decimals in the divisor, and 3 in the dividend, hence there is one decimal in the quotient.

EXAMPLE II.

Divide 0.35 by 0.7

$$\begin{array}{r} .7 \overline{) .35} \\ .35 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

EXAMPLE III.

Divide 3.1 by .0062.

Previous to the division I affix a number of cyphers to the right hand of 3.1, which does not alter its value.

$$\begin{array}{r} .0062 \overline{) 3.100000} \\ 310 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 0000 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Therefore the answer is 500.00 or 500.

EXAMPLE IV.

Divide 9.6 by .06.

$$\begin{array}{r} .06 \overline{) 9.6} \\ 960 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Answer 160

Here by affixing a cypher to 9.6 it becomes 9.60, and has then 2 decimals in it which is the same number as is in the divisor, therefore the quotient is an integer number.

EXAMPLE V.

Divide 17.256 by 1.16

$$\begin{array}{r} 1.16 \overline{) 17.25600} \\ 116 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 565 \\ 464 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1016 \\ 928 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 880 \\ 812 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 680 \\ 580 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

100

REDUCTION OF DECIMALS.

If you wish to reduce a vulgar fraction to a decimal, you may add any number of cyphers to the numerator, and divide it by the denominator, the quotient will be the decimal fraction; the decimal point must be so placed that there may be as many figures to the right hand of it as you added cyphers to the numerator: if there are not as many figures in the quotient, you must place cyphers to the left hand to make up the number.

EXAMPLE I.
Reduce $\frac{1}{2}$ to a decimal.
5)1.0
Answer .2

EXAMPLE II.
Reduce $\frac{3}{8}$ to a decimal.
8)3.000
Answer 375

EXAMPLE III.
Reduce 3 inches to the decimal of a foot.
Since 12 inches = 1 foot, this fraction is $\frac{3}{12}$
12)3.00
Answer. .25.

If you have any decimal fraction, it is easy to find its value in the lower denominations of the same quantity; thus if the fraction was a decimal of a yard, by multiplying it by 3 we have its value in feet and parts; if we multiply this by 12, the product is its value in inches and parts; and in the same manner the values may be obtained in other cases.

EXAMPLE VI.
Required the value of 3.25 yards.
3.25
3
—
.75
12
—
9.00
Answer 3 yards, 0 feet, 9 inches.

EXAMPLE IV.
Reduce $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches to the decimal of a foot.
 $3\frac{1}{2} = \frac{7}{2}$, this divided by 12 is $\frac{7}{24}$.
Answer, 24)7.000(.291

48
—
220
216
—
40
24
—
16

EXAMPLE V.
Reduce 1 foot and 6 inches to the decimal of a yard.
Here 1 foot 6 inches 18 = inches.
And 1 yard = 36 inches, therefore this fraction is $\frac{18}{36}$;
36)18.0(.5 Answer.
180

EXAMPLE VII.
Required the value of 7.231 days.
7.231
24
—
924
462
—
5.544
60
—
32.640
60
—
38.400
Answer 7 days, 5 hours, 22 minutes, and 33 seconds.

MULTIPLICATION OF FEET, INCHES AND PARTS; OR DUODECIMALS.

The multiplication of *feet* and *inches* is generally called *duodecimals*, because every superior place is 12 times its next inferior in this scale of notation. This way of conceiving an unit to be divided, is chiefly in use among *artificers*, who generally take the linear dimensions of their work in *feet* and *inches*: It is likewise called *cross multiplication*, because the *factors* are sometimes multiplied crosswise.

RULE I.

- Under the multiplicand write the corresponding denominations of the multiplier; that is, feet under feet, inches under inches, parts under parts, &c.
- Multiply each term in the multiplicand, beginning at the lowest, by the feet in the multiplier; write each result under its respective term, observing to carry an unit for every 12, from each lower denomination to its next superior.
- In the same manner multiply every term in the multiplicand by the inches in the multiplier, and set the result of each term one place removed to the right-hand, of those in the multiplicand.
- Work in a similar manner with the parts in the multiplier, setting the result of each term removed two places to the right-hand of those in the multiplicand. Proceed in like manner with the rest of the denominations, and their sum will be the answer required.

EXAMPLE I. Let 7 feet 9 inches be multiplied by 3 feet 6 inches.

	F.	I.	
Multiplicand	7	..	9
Multiplier	3	..	6
	23	..	3 Parts,
	3	..	10 .. 6
Product	27	..	1 .. 6

First multiply 9 inches by 3, saying, 3 times 9 is 27 inches, which make 2 feet 3 inches; set down 3 under inches, and carry 2 to the feet, saying, 3 times 7 is 21, and 2 that I carry make 23; set down 23 under the feet.

Then begin with 6 inches, saying, 6 times 9 is 54 parts which is 4 inches and 6 parts; set down 6 parts, and carry 4, saying, 6 times 7 is 42, and 4 that I carry is 46 inches, which is 3 feet 10 inches; which set down, and, add all up together, and the product is 27 feet 1 inch 6 parts.

EXAMPLE 2. Let 7 feet 5 inches 9 parts be multiplied by 3 feet 5 inches 3 parts.

	F.	I.	P.		
Multiplicand	7	..	5	..	9
Multiplier	3	..	5	..	3
	22	..	5	..	3 S.
	3	..	1	..	4 9 T.
			1	..	10 .. 5 .. 3
Product	25	..	8	..	6 .. 2 .. 3

In this example, I first begin with 3 feet, and thereby multiply 7 feet 5 inches and 9 parts: First, I say, 3 times 9 is 27 parts, that is 2 inches and 3 parts; set down 3 under the parts, and carry 2, saying, 3 times 5 is 15, and 2 I carry is 17, that is, 1 foot 5 inches; set down 5 inches, and carry 1, and say, 3 times 7 is 21, and 1 I carry is 22; set down 22 feet: Then begin with 5 inches, saying, 5 times 9 is 45, which is 45 seconds, which makes 3 parts and 9 seconds; set down 9 seconds a place towards the right hand, and carry 3 parts, saying 5 times 5 is 25, and 3 I carry is 28, which is 2 inches and 4 parts, set down 4 parts and carry 2, saying 5 times 7 is 35, and 2 I carry is 37, which is 3 feet 1 inch; set down 3 feet 1 inch; and begin to multiply by 3 parts, saying 3 times 9 is 27 thirds, that is 2 seconds and thirds; set down 3 thirds, and carry 2, saying 3 times 5 is 15, and 2 I carry is 17, that is, 1 part and 5 seconds; set down 5 seconds, and carry 1, saying 3 times 7 is 21, and 1 I carry is 22, which is 1 inch and 10 parts, which set down and add all up, and the product is 25 feet 8 inches 6 parts 2 seconds 3 thirds.

RULE II.

When the feet in the Multiplicand are expressed by a large number.

Multiply first by the feet in the multiplier, as before. Then, instead of multiplying by the inches and parts, &c. proceed as in the Rule of Practice, by taking such aliquot parts of the multiplicand as correspond with the inches and parts, &c. of the multiplier. Then the sum of them all will be the product required.

EXAMPLE 3. Let 75 feet 7 inches be multiplied by 9 feet 8 inches.

In	F.	I.	
4 }	75	..	7 Multiplicand.
4 }	9	..	8 Multiplier
	680	..	3
	25	..	2 .. 4
	25	..	2 .. 4
Product	730	..	7 .. 8

Multiply by 9 feet first, as above directed; then instead of multiplying by the 8 inches, let them be divided into aliquot parts of a foot, as 4 and 4, because 4 is the third part of 12. So if you take the third part of 75 feet 7 inches, and set it down twice, and add all together, the sum will be 730 feet 7 inches 8 parts. To take the third part, say, how often 3 in 7, which is twice; set down 2; then because twice 3 is 6, say, 6 out of 7, and there remains 1, for which you must add 10 to the 5, and it makes 15; then the threes in 15 are 5 times; set down 5; and because three times 5 is 15, there is 0 remains. Then go to the 7 inches, saying, the three in 7 are twice; set down 2 in the inches; and because twice 3 is 6, take 6 out of 7, and there remains 1 inch, which is 12 parts; threes in 12 are 4 times, and 0 remains. So the third part of 75 feet 7 inches is 25 feet 2 inches 4 parts; which set twice over, and add them together as in the example.

EXAMPLE 4. Let 37 feet 6 inches 5 parts, be multiplied by 4 feet 8 inches 6 parts

I.	P.		F.	I.	P.	
4	..	0 }	37	7	..	5 Multiplicand.
4	..	0 }	4	..	8	..
			150	..	5	..
			12	..	6	..
			12	..	6	..
			1	..	6	..
			177	..	1	..
				5	..	0 .. 6

In this example I first multiply by 4 feet as usual. Then for the 8 inches I say 4 inches is the third of a foot, therefore I take the third part of 37 feet 7 inches 5 parts, which is 12 feet 6 inches 5 parts 8 seconds, and set it down twice. Then for 6 parts, I say, 6 parts are the eighth of four inches, because 12 parts make 1 inch; hence it follows, that whatever be the value, or product, by 4 inches, the

value of 6 parts will be one-eighth thereof; therefore I take one-eighth of 12 feet 6 inches 5 parts 8 seconds, and find it to be 1 foot 6 inches 5 parts, 8 seconds, 6 thirds; so that the sum of the whole is 177 feet 1 inch 5 parts 6 thirds.

EXTRACTION OF THE SQUARE ROOT.

If a square number be given;

To find the Root thereof, that is to find out such a number, as being multiplied into itself, the product shall be equal to the number given; such operation is called, *The Extraction of the Square Root*; which to do, observe the following directions.

1. You must point your given numbers; that is, make a point over the unit's place, another over the hundred's, and so over every second figure throughout.
2. Then seek the greatest square number in the first period towards the left hand, placing the square number under that point, and the root thereof in the quotient, and subtract the said square number from the first point, and to the remainder bring down the next point, and call that the resolvend.
3. Then double the quotient, and place it for a divisor on the left hand of the resolvend; and seek how often the divisor is contained in the resolvend (reserving always the unit's place) and put the answer in the quotient, and also on the right hand side of the divisor; then multiply by the figure last put up in the quotient, and subtract the product from the resolvend (as in common division) and bring down the next point to the remainder (if there be any more) and proceed as before.

A Table of Squares and their Roots.

Root	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Square	1	4	9	16	25	36	49	64	81

EXAMPLE 1. Let 4489 be a number given, and let the square root thereof be required.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 4489(67 \\
 36 \\
 \hline
 127)889 \text{ Resolvend.} \\
 889 \text{ Product.} \\
 \hline
 \dots
 \end{array}$$

First, point the given number, as before directed; then by the little table foregoing, seek the greatest square number in 44 (the first point to the left-hand) which you will find to be 36, and 6 the root; put 6 under 44, and 6 in the quotient, and subtract 36 from 44, and there remains 8. Then to that 8 bring down the other point 89, placing it on the right-hand, so it makes 889 for a resolvend; then double the quotient 6, and it makes 12; which place on the left-hand for a divisor, and seek how often 12 in 88 (reserving the unit's place) the answer is 7 times; which put in the quotient, and also on the right hand side of the divisor, and multiply 127 by 7, as in common division, and the product is 889, which subtracted from the resolvend, there remains nothing; so is your work finished; and the square root of 4489 is 67; which root if you multiply by itself, that is 67 by 67, the product will be 4489, equal to the given square number, and proves the work to be right. Had there been any remainder, it must have been added to the square of the root found.

EXAMPLE 2. Let 106929 be a number given, and let the square root thereof be required.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 106929(327 \\
 9 \\
 \hline
 62)169 \text{ Resolvend.} \\
 124 \text{ Product.} \\
 \hline
 647)4529 \text{ Resolvend.} \\
 4529 \text{ Product.} \\
 \hline
 \dots
 \end{array}$$

First point your given number, as before directed, putting a point over the units, hundreds, and tens of thousands; then seek what is the greatest square number in 10 (the first point) which by the little table you will find to be 9, and 3 the root thereof; put 3 under 10, and 3 in the quotient; then subtract 9 out of 10, and there remains 1; to which bring down 69, the next point, and it makes 169 for the resolvend; then double the quotient 3, and it makes 6, which place on the left hand of the resolvend for a divisor, and seek how often 6 in 16; the answer is twice, put 2 in the quotient, and also on the right hand of the divisor making it 62. Then multiply 62 by the 2 you put in the quotient, and the product is 124; which subtract from the resolvend, and there remains 45; to which bring down 29, the next point, and it makes 4529 for a new resolvend. Then double the quotient 32, and it makes 64, which place on the left side of the resolvend for the divisor, and seek how often 64 in 452, which you will find 7 times; put 7 in the quotient, and also on the right hand of the divisor, making it 647, which multiplied by the 7 in the quotient, it makes 4529, which subtracted from the resolvend, there remains nothing. So 327 is the square root of the given number.

NOTE. The root will always contain just so many figures, as there are points over the given number to be extracted: And these figures will be whole num-

bers or decimals respectively, according as the points stand over the whole numbers or decimals. The method of extracting the square root of a decimal is exactly the same as in the foregoing examples, only if the number of decimals be odd, annex a cypher to the right hand to make them even before you begin to point. The root may be continued to any number of figures you please, by annexing two cyphers at a time to each remainder, for a new resolvend.

EXTRACTION OF THE CUBE ROOT.

To extract the Cube Root, is nothing else but to find such a number, as being first multiplied into itself, and then into that product, produceth the given number; which to perform, observe the following directions.

1. You must point your given number, beginning with the unit's place and make a point, or dot, over every third figure towards the left-hand.
2. Seek the greatest cube number in the first point, towards the left-hand, putting the root thereof in the quotient, and the said cube number under the first point, and subtract it therefrom, and to the remainder bring down the next point, and call that the resolvend.
3. Triple the quotient, and place it under the resolvend; the unit's place of this under the ten's place, of the resolvend; and call this the triple quotient.
4. Square the quotient, and triple the square and place it under the triple quotient; the units of this under the ten's place of the triple quotient, and call this the triple square.
5. Add these two together, in the same order as they stand, and the sum shall be the divisor.
6. Seek how often the divisor is contained in the resolvend, rejecting the unit's place of the resolvend (as in the square root,) and put the answer in the quotient.
7. Cube the figure last put in the quotient, and put the unit's place thereof under the unit's place of the resolvend.
8. Multiply the square of the figure last put in the quotient into the triple quotient, and place the product under the last, one place more to the left-hand.
9. Multiply the triple square by the figure last put in the quotient, and place it under the last, one place more to the left-hand.
10. Add the three last numbers together, in the same order as they stand, and call that the subtrahend.
11. Subtract the subtrahend from the resolvend, and if there be another point, bring it down to the remainder, and call that a new resolvend, and proceed in all respects as before.

NOTE. To square a number is to multiply that number by itself. And, To cube a number is to multiply the square of the number by the number itself.

A Table of Cubes and their Roots.

Roots	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Cubes	1	8	27	64	125	216	343	512	729

EXAMPLE I. Let 314432 be a whole number, whose root is required.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 314432(68 \text{ Root.} \\
 216 \\
 \hline
 98432 \text{ Resolvend.} \\
 18 \text{ Triple quotient of 6.} \\
 108 \text{ Triple square of the quotient 6.} \\
 \hline
 1098 \text{ Divisor.} \\
 512 \text{ Cube of 8, the last figure of the root.} \\
 1152 \text{ The square of 8, by the triple quotient.} \\
 864 \text{ The Triple square of the quotient 6 by 8.} \\
 \hline
 98432 \text{ The subtrahend.} \\
 \hline
 \dots
 \end{array}$$

After you have pointed the given number, seek what is the greatest cube number in 314, the first point, which, by the little table annexed to the rule you will find to be 216, which is the nearest that is less than 314, and its root is 6; which put in the quotient, and 216 under 314, and subtract it therefrom, and there remains 98; to which bring down the next point, 432, and annex it to 98; so will it make 98432 for the resolvend. Then triple the quotient 6, it makes 18, which write down the unit's place, 8, under 3, the ten's place of the resolvend. Then square the quotient 6, and triple the square, and it makes 108, which write under the triple quotient, one place towards the left-hand; then add those two numbers together, and they make 1098 for the divisor. Then seek how often the divisor is contained in the resolvend, (rejecting the unit's place thereof) that is, how often 1098 in 9843, which is 8 times; put 8 in the quotient, and the value thereof below the divisor, the unit's place under the unit's place of the resolvend. Then square the 8 last put in the quotient, and multiply 64, the square thereof, by the triple quotient 18; the product is 1152; set this under the cube of 8, the units of this under the tens of that. Then multiply the triple square of the quotient by 8, the figure last put up in the quotient, the product is 864; set this down under the last product, a place more to the left-hand. Then draw a line under these three, and add them together, and the sum is 98432, which is called the subtrahend; and being subtracted from the resolvend, the remainder is nothing;

which shows the number to be a true cubic number, whose root is 68; that is, if 68 be cubed, it will make 314432.

For if 68 be multiplied by 68, the product will be 4624; and this product, multiplied, again by 68, the last product is 314432, which shows the work to be right.

EXAMPLE 2. Let the cube root of 5735339 be required.

After you have pointed the given number, seek what is the greatest cube number in 5, the first point, which by the little table, you will find to be 1, which place under 5, and 1, the root thereof, in the quotient; and subtract 1 from 5, and there remains 4; to which bring down the next point, it makes 4735 for the dividend. Then triple the 1, and it makes 3; and the square of 1 is 1, and the triple thereof is 3; which set one under another, in their order, and added, makes 33 for the divisor. Seek how often the divisor goes in the resolvend, and proceed as in the last example.

```

5735339(179 Root.
1
-----
4735
3 Triple of the quotient 1, the first figure.
3 The triple square of the quotient 1.
-----
33 The divisor.
343 The cube of 7, the second figure of the root.
147 The square of 7, multiplied in the triple quotient 3.
21 The triple square of the quotient multiplied by 7.
-----
3913 The subtrahend.
822339 The new resolvend.
51 The triple of the quotient 17, the two first figures.
867 The triple square of the quotient 17.
-----
8721 Divisor.
729 The cube of 9, the last figure of the root.
4131 The square of the 9, multiplied by the triple quotient 51.
7803 The triple square of the quotient 867 by 9.
-----
822339 The subtrahend.

```

In this example, 33, the first divisor, seems to be contained more than seven times in 473, the dividend, after the unit's place has been rejected; but if you work with 9, or 8, you will find that the subtrahend will be greater than the dividend.

MENSURATION

Of Superfices and Solids.

SECTION I. OF SUPERFICES.

The areas or superficies of any plane figure is estimated by the number of squares contained in its surface; the side of those squares being either an inch, a foot, a yard, a link, or a chain according to the measures peculiar to different artists.

Our common measures of length is given in the tables below the right hand table, it is the square measure as taken from the other by squaring the several numbers.

1 LINEAL MEASURE.		2 SQUARE MEASURE.	
12 Inches	1 Foot.	144 Inches	1 Foot.
3 Feet	1 Yard.	9 Feet	1 Yard.
6 Feet	1 Fathom	36 Feet	1 Fathom.
16½ Feet }	{ 1 Pole or	272½ Feet }	{ 1 Pole or
5½ Yards }		30½ Yards }	
40 Poles	1 Furlong	1600 Poles	1 Furlong.
8 Furlongs	1 Mile	64 Furlongs	1 Mile.

Land is generally measured by a chain of 4 rods or 66 feet in length, called Gunter's chain, from the name of the inventor.

This chain is made up of 100 links, and every tenth link, from either end, is marked by a small brass plate attached to it and notched to designate its number from the end. This chain being divided into one hundred equal parts is a convenient one, since the divisions, or links, are decimals of the whole chain and in the calculations may be treated as such.

The length of the chain being 4 poles or 66 feet, is equal to 792 inches which being divided by 100, gives 7.92 inches for the length of each link a mile being equal to 320 rods, therefore 80 chains is equal to 1 mile, and 40 chains is equal to half a mile, and 20 chains is equal to one fourth of a mile. And ten square chains or ten in length and one in breadth, make an acre, or 160 square poles or 100,000 square links each being the same in quantity. Forty perches or square poles make a rood, and 4 roods, make an acre.

The length of lines which are measured with a chain, are in general way set down in links, as whole numbers, every chain being 100 links in length. Therefore after the dimensions are squared or the superficies found, it will be in square links, when this is the case it will be necessary to cut off five of the figures on the right hand for decimals, and the rest will be acres. These decimals must be then multiplied by 4, for roods, and the decimals of these again, after five figures are cut off by 40 for poles, and the five decimals again by 272½ for feet.

Article I. To measure a square, having equal sides.

RULE.—Multiply the side of the square into itself, and the product will be the area or superficial content, of the same name with the denomination taken, either in inches, feet, or yards, respectively.

Let A B C D (fig. 1 pl. 34, of Mensuration,) which represents a square whose sides are 12 inches, or 12 feet. Multiply the side 12 by itself thus;—

12 inches,	12 feet.
12 inches,	12 feet.
Area, 144 inches.	144 feet.

Art. II. To measure a Parallelogram or long square.

RULE.—Multiply the length by the breadth and the product will be the area, or superficial content.

Let A B C D, (fig. 2,) represent a parallelogram, whose length is 16 feet, and breadth 10 feet

Length 16
Breadth 10

Area, 160 Ans.

To demonstrate these examples let two sides of the given squares, be divided into equal parts as represented in the figures, and draw lines through the several divisions parallel to A B and A D which will divide the figures into as many little squares as it contains inches, feet, respectively.

Art. III. To measure a Rhombus.

RULE.—Multiply the side by the length of a perpendicular let fall from one of the obtuse angles to the opposite side.

What is the area of a rhombus A B C D (fig. 3) the length A B being 5 feet 9 inches, and the perpendicular height A E 5 feet, 9 inches.

By duodecimals.	By decimals.
5-9	5-9
5-9	5-9
4-3-9	28-9
28-9	4-3-9
Ans. 33-0-9	Ans. 33-0-9
f i ü	f i ü
	Ans. 33,0625.

Art. IV. To find the area of a Rhomboid.

RULE.—Multiply one of the longest sides by the perpendicular let fall from one of the obtuse angles to the opposite side.

What is the area of a rhomboid A B C D (fig. 4) whose length A B is 10f. 9 and the perpendicular height A E 4f. 6i.

10-9	10-9	10-75
4 6	4 6	4-50
5-4-6	43-0	53750
43-0	5-4-6	4300
Ans. 48-4-6	48-4-6	48,3750
f i ü	f i ü	

Demonstration of the two last figures; let B F in (fig. 3 and 4) be drawn perpendicular to A B, and produce the line C D to F, then will the angles A D E be equal to the angles B C F and A B E F will be a square in fig. 3, and fig. 4, will be a rectangle.

Art. V. To find the area of a Trapezoid.

RULE.—Multiply the half sum of the parallel ends, by the length and the product will be the area.

What is the area of the trapezoid A B C D in (fig. 5) the end A D being 4f-6 and the end B C 3f-8 and 12f 3 inches long.

End A D = 4-6	12-3	12-3
End B C = 3-8	4-1	4-1
divide 2)8-2	1-0-3	49-0
	49-0	1-0-3
4-1-half sum	Ans. 50-0-3	50-0-3
	f i ü	

Art. VI. To find the area of a Triangle.

RULE.—If it be a right angled triangle multiply the base by half the perpendicular, or half the base by the perpendicular, and the product will be the area; but if it be an oblique, obtuse, or acute angled triangle multiply the base by half of the perpendicular let fall on the base from the angle opposite to it, and the product will be the area.

What is the area of the triangle A B C (fig. 6.) whose base A B is 24f. and the perpendicular B C 18f. 6i.

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Base A B}=24-0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \text{Perp. B C}=9-3 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Or perp. B C}=18-5 \\ \frac{1}{2} \text{Base A B}=12-0 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 6-0-0 \\ 216-0 \\ \hline \text{Ans. } 222-0-0 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 3700 \\ 185 \\ \hline 222.00 \end{array}$$

To demonstrate this figure let A G be drawn perpendicular to A B; at E the half of the perpendicular height, draw E F G parallel to A B, draw C H parallel to E G, and make equal in length to E F, and through F draw H F D parallel to B C (Geometry, Theorem, 1.) and thus, the triangle C E F is equal to the triangle A G F, and if the triangle C E F be taken and placed upon the angle A G F, then will A B E G become a rectangle which proves the first method. Again let the triangle A D F be taken away and placed upon the angle C H F then B C D H becomes a rectangle which proves the second method.

And the proceeding figures may also be demonstrated in the same manner.

To find the area of the triangle A B C (fig. 7) whose base A B is 16 f, and the perpendicular C D is 10 f 2 i.

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Base A B}=16-0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \text{Perp C D}=5-1 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \text{or Perp C D}=10-2 \\ \frac{1}{2} \text{Base A B}=8-0 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1-4-0 \\ 80-0 \\ \hline 81-4-0 \\ f. i. ii \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 14-0 \\ 80 \\ \hline 81-4-0 \end{array}$$

Art. VII. There is another method of finding the area of triangles the three sides being given.

RULE.—Add the three sides together, then take the half of that sum, and out of it subtract each side severally; and multiply the half of the sum and these remainders continually, and the square root of this product will be the area of the triangle.

What is the area of the triangle A B C (fig. 7) the side A B being 16 f. and the side A C 14 f, and the side B C is 12 f.

side A B=16	21	21	21
side A C=14	16	14	12
side B C=12	—	—	—
—	5 first diff.	7 sec. diff.	9 third diff.
2)42 sum			
21=half the sum		6615(81.33= area	
×.5		64	
105		161)215	
×.7		161	
735		1623)5400	
×.9		4869	
6615		16263)53100	
		48789	

If any two sides of a right angled triangle be given the third side may also be found; this part will be fully explained hereafter in trigonometry.

Art. VIII. To find the area of a trapezium.

RULE.—Draw a diagonal line from one of the angles to the opposite angle as A C in (fig. 8) and then will the trapezium be divided into two triangles of which the diagonal is the common base; then letting fall perpendiculars from the opposite angles as B F and D E to the diagonal line A C: and then add these perpendiculars B F and D E together, and multiply half that sum into the diagonal, or half of the diagonal into the perpendiculars, and that product will be the area of the trapezium.

What is the area of the trapezium A B C D (fig. 8) the base A C is 18 Ch 74 Li: the perpendicular B F 6 Ch 90 Li and D E 7 Ch 56 Li.

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Perp B F}=6-90 \\ \text{Perp D E}=7-56 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \text{Base A C}=18-74 \\ \frac{1}{2} \text{Perpendicular}=7-23 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Divide by } 2)14-46 \\ 7-23 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 5622 \\ 3748 \\ \hline 13-118 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{acres.}=1354902 \\ 4 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{roods}=2-19608 \\ 40 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{rods}=7-84320 \\ 272 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 168640 \\ 590240 \\ \hline 168640 \end{array}$$

$$\text{feet}=229-35040$$

Art. IX. To find the area of any irregular figure.

RULE.—Divide the figure into triangles, by drawing diagonals from one angle to another, then measure all the triangles by either of the rules, already taught, at Arts. 6, 7, or 8, and the sum of the several areas of all the triangles will be the area of the figure.

What is the area of the irregular figure A B C D E F in (fig. 9.) Draw the diagonal F C, and let fall the perpendiculars F G, F H, and B I and D K, then we will commence on the base A B which is 12 Ch 8 Li, and the base F C 10 Ch 86 Li, the base E D 8 Ch 68 Li, the perpendiculars F G 6 Ch 49 Li, F H 4 Ch 95 Li, B I 6 Ch 80 Li, and D K 5 Ch 90 Li.

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Perp F G}=6-49 \\ \text{Perp F H}=4-95 \\ \text{Perp B I}=6-80 \\ \text{Perp D K}=5-90 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \text{Base A B}=12-08 \\ \text{Base F C}=10-86 \\ \text{Base E D}=8-68 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Divide by } 2)24-14 \\ 12-07 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 31-62 \\ \frac{1}{2} \text{Perp}=12-07 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 22134 \\ 63240 \\ \hline 3162 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{acres}=38-16534 \\ 4 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{roods}=66136 \\ 40 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{rods}=26-45440 \\ 272 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 90880 \\ 318080 \\ \hline 90880 \end{array}$$

$$\text{feet}=123-59680$$

Art. X. To find the area of a Trapezoid.

RULE.—Add the parallel sides together, and multiply half that sum by the perpendicular breadth, and the product will be the area.

What is the area of the trapezoid A B C D (fig. 10) the side A B being 9 f, the side C D 12 f 6 i, and the perpendicular height A E 9 f 8 i.

By duodecimals.	By practice.
side A B=9-0	10-9
side C D=12-6	9-3
21-6= sum	7-2-0
10-9 = $\frac{1}{2}$ half of sum	96-9
height A E=9-8	103-11-0
96-9	
7-2-0	
ans. 103-11-0	
f. i. ii	

Art. XI. To find the area of any regular polygon.

RULE.—Multiply the whole perimeter or sum of the sides by half of the perpendicular, or multiply half of the perimeter by the whole perpendicular, let fall from the centre to the middle of one of the sides.

EXAMPLE 1. What is the area of the pentagon A B C D E (fig. 11) the sides A B, B C &c. being 6 f. 1 i. and the perpendicular height from F to the centre of the figure or polygon, is 4 f. 1 i.

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Sides}=30-0-0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \text{Perp. F G}=2-0-6 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \text{or } 2)30 \\ 15-0 \\ \hline \text{Perp.}=4-1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 60-0-0 \\ 1-3-0 \\ \hline 60-0 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{area } 61-3-0 \\ f. i. ii. \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 61-3-0 \end{array}$$

To demonstrate this figure by the first method, let a line be drawn F, F in (fig. 12) and make F, F equal in length to the whole perimeter of the stretchout of the five sides in (fig. 11) of which is 30 feet, then take half of the perpendicular F G in (fig. 11) and set it up from F, F to G, G in (fig. 12) and draw the line G, G which will be parallel to F F; then take the several trapezoids from (fig. 11) and transfer them to (fig. 12) commencing at F B the half side, then the sides B C, C D, D E, E A, and A F &c., and place them on the line F, F in (fig. 12); then take the five small angles n, n, n, &c. in (fig. 11) and transfer them to n, n, n, &c. in (fig. 12,) which completes the figure, and now we can see that any regular polygon can be formed into a parallelogram. Again, by the second rule; let F O or O F in (fig. 13) be drawn equal in length to half of the perimeter (which is 15 feet) and make F O and O F equal in height to the whole perpendicular, which being 4 f. 1 i. and draw O F parallel to F O, then will this figure contain the same quantity of space as (figures 11 and 12,) and it is made up of the five equal angles from (fig. 11,) that is four wholes and two halves; as may be seen in the diagram of the figure, therefore these parallelograms are equal to the pentagon, which proves the rules correct.

EXAMPLE 2. What is the area of the hexagon A B C D E F (fig. 14) each side being 14 f. 6 i. and the perpendicular height from G to the centre of the polygon, is 12 f. 8 i.

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{half of the length of the side is}=43-6 \\ \text{the perpendicular is}=12-8 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 29-0-0 \\ 522-0 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Ans. } 551-0-0 \\ f. i. ii. \end{array}$$

This figure may also be demonstrated in the same way as (fig. 11) for every regular polygon is equal to the parallelogram or long square whose length is equal to half the sum of the sides, and breadth equal to the perpendicular of the polygon as has been proved heretofore; this figure is made up of six equilateral triangles, and the parallelogram HIJK is also composed of six equilateral triangles, that is five whole ones and two halves, as may be seen in the diagram of the figure; therefore the parallelogram is equal to the hexagon.

But for finding more readily the area of a regular polygon, and also the perpendicular and the radius, the following table is introduced; containing the multipliers for all regular figures from the triangle to the duodecagon.

1 No. of Sides.	2 Name of the Polygon.	3 Area multipliers.	4 Perpendicular multipliers.	5 Radius multipliers.	6 No. of degrees.
3	Trigon	0.433013	0.2886751	0.5773603	120
4	Tetragon	1.000000	0.5000000	0.7071068	90
5	Pentagon	1.720477	0.6881910	0.8506508	72
6	Hexagon	2.598076	0.8660254	1. Side=rad.	60
7	Heptagon	3.633912	1.0322617	1.1523825	51 $\frac{1}{2}$
8	Octagon	4.828427	1.2071068	1.3065630	45
9	Nonagon	6.181824	1.3737387	1.4619022	40
10	Decagon	7.694209	1.5383418	1.6186340	36
11	Undecagon	9.365640	1.7028437	1.7747329	32 $\frac{7}{10}$
12	Duodecagon	11.196152	1.8660254	1.9318516	30

RULE 2.—Multiply the square of the side by the tabular area and the product will be the area of the polygon. Or multiply the side of the polygon by the tabular perpendicular, and the product will give the perpendicular from F to the centre of the polygon as in (fig. 11.) And by multiplying the side of the polygon also by the tabular radius, and the product will give the length from ABC, &c. to the centre of the polygon.

EXAMPLES.—1 If the side of a pentagon be 6 feet what is the area.

6	1.720477 tabular area.
6	36
—	—
36=square	10322862
	5161431
	—
	answer 61.937172

2 What is the area of an octagon whose sides is 8 feet 3 inches.

8.25	4.828427
8.25	680
—	—
4125	386274160
1650	28970562
6600	—
—	—
680625	ans. 328.3330360

3 If the sides of a pentagon be 6 feet, what is the length of the perpendicular.

6881910
6
—
4.1291460

4 If the sides of a pentagon be 6 feet what is the length of the radius.

8506508
6
—
ans. 5.1039048

And in case it is required to find the tabular numbers answering for the perpendicular, where the polygon has more than twelve sides; they may be found by Trigonometry. There may be instances where the sides of a polygon may be obtained where the perpendicular cannot, and if we can have the length of the sides and perpendicular, it is all we want to find the area.

NOTE.—There is no letter described at the centre of the polygon in the diagram of the figure; therefore we will suppose that the angles at the centre of the polygon (as in fig. 11) to be designated by the letter O.

To find the tabular numbers; thus, find the angle of the centre of the polygon as O in (fig. 11) by dividing the number of sides by 360°; then suppose each side of the pentagon in (fig. 11) be 1 or AB the log. of 10 then AF would be 5 the half log.

Example; divide 360° by 5 (the number of sides in the pentagon) and the quotient is 72° for the angle AOB the half of which is 36° the angle FOA whose complement to 90° is 54° the angle OAF. Then say.

As cosecant FOA 36°	- - - - -	10.230701
Is to 5 the half side FA log	- - - - -	0.698970
So is sine OAB 54°	- - - - -	9.907958
To the perpendicular FO	0.6881910	- - 0.837709

Art. XII.—The diameter of a circle being given to find the circumference; or the circumference being given to find the diameter.

RULES.—As 7 is to 22, so is the diameter to the circumference nearly; or as 22 is to 7 so is the circumference to the diameter nearly.

2 Or more exactly as 113 is to 355 so is the diameter to circumference, or as 355 is to 113 so is the circumference to the diameter.

EXAMPLES.—What is the circumference of a circle, whose diameter is 6 ft. 6 in.

as 7 : 22 :: 6.5 :

65

110

132

7)1430(20.42 the circum. nearly

14

30

28

20

14

as 113 : 355 :: 6.5 :

65

1775

2130

113)23075(20.42

226

452

475

230

226

Art. XIII.—What is the diameter of a circle whose circumference is 20.42 ft.

as 22 : 7 :: 20.42 :

as 355 : 1130 :: 20.42

7

2042

22)14294(6.5 diam. nearly

132

2260

4520

22600

355)2307460(6-5 dm. nearly.

2130

1774

1775

We now see the proportions of these examples are nearly correct, the latter however is the most accurate.

Circles like all other similar plain figures are in proportion to one another, as the squares of their diameters and their circumferences, are to one another as their diameters of circles, or radii.

The proportion of the diameter of a circle to its circumference has never yet been exactly determined. This problem has engaged the attention, and exercised the abilities of the greatest mathematicians for ages; no squares or any other right lined figures, has yet been found that shall be perfectly equal to a given circle. But though the relation between the diameter and circumference has not been accurately expressed in numbers, it may be approximated to any assigned degree of exactness. Archimedes, about two thousand years ago, discovered the proportion to be nearly as 7 to 22; other and nearer ratios have since been successsfully assigned, viz: as 106 to 333, or 113 to 355; this last proportion is useful, for being turned into a decimal, it agrees with the truth to the 6th figure inclusively.

Art. XIV. To find the area of a circle.

RULES.—1. Multiply half the diameter by half the circumference, and the product will be the area.

2. Multiply the square of the diameter by .7854, and the product will be the area.

3. Multiply the square of the radius by 3.1416 and the product will be the area.

4. Multiply the square of the circumference by .07958, and the product will be the area.

If the diameter be given, find the circumference by Art. XII.

If the circumference be given, find the diameter by Art. XIII.

What is the area of a circle whose diameter is 6 f 6, and circumference 20 f 4 i.

By RULE I.

$\frac{1}{2}$ 20 f 4 i. = 10.2

$\frac{1}{2}$ 6 f 6 i. = 3.3

2.6 6

30.6

Ans. 33-0.6

f. i. s.

By RULE II.

diameter 6-5

6-5

325

390

4225 sq. of diameter

7854

16900

21125

33800

29575

Ans. 33,183150

To demonstrate the first rule, let ABCD (fig. 15) be the circle, and ABC half of the circumference; and BE the semi-diameter. Let a line be drawn FG parallel to the diameter AC; and divide the quadrants BA and BC into any like number of equal parts; or take the stretch out of BA and BC and produce them to F and G; and draw HF and GI parallel to BE; and produce the diameter AC to H. and I. Then will the parallelogram HIGF contain the same area as the circle ABCD; for every circle may be conceived to be a polygon of an infinite number of sides; now the semi-diameter, must be equal to the perpendicular of such a polygon; and the circumference of the circle equal to the periphery of the polygon; therefore half of the circumference multiplied by half of the diameter will give the area of a circle.

Demonstration of Rule II. All circles are to each other as the squares of the diameters, and the area of a circle whose diameter is 1, is 7854 (by the second example;) therefore as the square of 1 which is 1 to .7854, so is the square of the diameter of any circle to its area.

Art. XV. Having the diameter circumference or area of a circle given; to find the side of a square equal in area to the circle and the side of a square inscrib-

ed in the circle, or having the side of a square given to find the diameter of its circumscribing circle, and also of a circle equal in area, &c.

RULES.—1. The diameter of any circle multiplied by 8862269 will give the side of a square equal in area, as in (fig. 16.)

2. The circumference of any circle multiplied by 2820948 will give the side of a square equal in area.

3. The diameter of any circle multiplied by 7071068 will give the side of a square inscribed in that circle.

4. The circumference of any circle multiplied by 2250791 will give the side of a square inscribed in that circle.

5. The area of any circle multiplied by 6366197 and the square root of the product extracted will give the side of a square inscribed in that circle.

6. The side of any square multiplied by 1.414236 will give the diameter of its circumscribing circle.

7. The side of any square multiplied by 4.4428829 will give the circumference of its circumscribing circle.

8. The side of any square multiplied by 1.1283791 will give the diameter of a circle equal in area to the square.

9. The side of any square multiplied by 3.5449076 will give the circumference of a circle equal in area to the square.

Art. XVI. To find the area of a semi-circle.

RULE.—Multiply the fourth part of the circumference of the whole (that is half the arc line) by the semi-diameter, the product is the area.

What is the area of the semi-circle ABC (fig. 17) the arc AB being 17f. 4½ i. and the semi-diameter BD is 11f. 3i.

By Duodecimals.	By Practice.
Cir. AB = 17-4-6	17-4-6
11-3-0	11-3-0
191-1-6	4-4-1-6-0
4-4-1-6	191-1-6
Ans. 195-5-7-6	195-5-7-6-0
f. i. p. s.	

Art. XVII. To find the area of a quadrant.

RULE.—Multiply half the arc line of the quadrant (that is the eighth part of the circumference of the whole circle) by the semi-diameter, and the product is the area of the quadrant.

What is the area of the quadrant ABC (fig. 18) half of the arc BC is 8f. 9i. and the semi-diameter AC is 11f. 3i.

By Duodecimals.	By Decimals.
11-3	11-25
8-9	8-75
90-0	5625
8-5-3	7875
Ans. 98-5-3	9000
f. i. p.	98,4375

Art. XVIII. The chord and height of a segment being given to find the chord of the half arc.

RULE.—To the square of the half chord add the square of the height, and the square root of the sum will be the length of the chord of half the arc.

EXAMPLE.—The chord AC (fig. 19) being 48 feet, and the height BD 18 feet, what is the length of the chord of half the arc.

2)48	18
24	18
24	
96	144
48	18
	324
Add { 576 square of half the chord.	
324 square of the height.	
900(30, length of half the chord.	
9	
00	

Art. XIX. To find the length of any arc of a circle, the half chord and chord of the whole arc being given.

RULE.—Subtract the chord of the whole arc from double the chord of the half arc; add one third of the remainder to the double chord of the half, and the sum will be nearly equal to the length of the arc.

EXAMPLES.—What is the length of the arc ABC (fig. 19) whose chord AC is 48 and the half chord AB is 30.

2 × 30 = 60 the double chord of the half arc.
48 the chord of the whole arc.

3)12
4
60 the double chord of the half arc.
64 the length of the arc required.

Art. XX. The chord and height of a segment being given to find the radius of the circle.

RULE.—To the square of the half chord, add the square of the height, and divide the sum by twice the height of the segment, and the quotient will be the radius of the circle, when it is less than a semi-circle.

The chord AC (fig. 19) of a segment being 48 feet, and the height BD 18 feet, what is the radius of the circle.

2)48	18 the height.
24 half the chord.	18
24	
96	144
48	18
	324
Add { 576 square of the half chord.	
324 the square of the height.	
36)900(25 the radius required.	18
72	2
180	
180	36 twice the height.

Art. XXI. Given any two parallel chords in a circle, and their distance, to find the distance of the greater chord from the centre.

RULE.—To the square of the distance between the chords, add the square of half the lesser chord. The difference between this sum, and the square of half the greater chord divide by twice the distance of the chords, will give the distance of the centre from the greatest chord.

EXAMPLE.—Suppose the greater chord CD (fig. 20) is 48 feet, and the lesser AB 30, their distance EG 13 feet, what is the distance EF from the centre to the greater chord CD.

13	½ 30 = 15	½ 48 = 24
13	15	24
39	75	96
13	15	48
169	225 sq. of the lesser ch.	576 sq. of the greater ch.
	169 sq. of the distanc.	394
394	2 × 13 = 26)182(7 = EF dist. req'd.	182

Art. XXII. Given a chord of a circle and its distance from the centre to find the radius of the circle.

RULE.—To the square of the half chord, add the square of the distance from the centre, and the square root of the sum will be the radius required.

EXAMPLE.—Given the chord CD (fig. 20) 48 feet, and its distance EF from the centre 7 feet, required the radius of the circle.

½ 48 = 24 and 24 × 24 = 576
7 × 7 = 49
625(25 the radius.
4
45)225
225

Art. XXIII. Given any two parallel chords in a circle, and the distance between them, to find the perpendicular height from the middle of either chord to the circumference.

RULE.—Find the nearest distance of the greater chord from the centre, by Art. 21, and find the radius of the circle by Art. 22, add the distance between the two parallel chords, and the distance between the greater chord and the centre of the circle together; this sum being taken from the radius, will give the perpendicular height from the middle of the lesser chord, to the circumference or height of the lesser segment; to the lesser segment add the distance between the parallel chords and the sum will be the height of the greater segment.

EXAMPLES.—Given the greater chord CD (fig. 20) 48 feet, and the lesser chord AB 30 feet, their distance EG 13 feet, required the distance GH perpendicular from the middle of AB to the circumference. The distance from the centre to the greater chord will be found to be 7 feet by Art. 21, and the radius 25 feet by Art. 22.

Thus 13 + 7 = 20 and 25 - 20 = 5 feet height of the lesser segment.
Then 13 + 5 = 18 the height of the greater segment.

Art. XXIV. To find the area of a sector of a circle.

RULE.—Multiply the radius or half the diameter by half the length of the arc of the sector, and the product will be the area.

EXAMPLE 1.—To find the area of the sector ABC (fig. 21) first find the half arc BD by Art. 19, which is 3f. 6i. and the radius or semi-diameter AB being 12f. 4i.

Radius AB is= 12-4
The half arc BD is= 3-6
6-2-0
37-0
Ans. 43-2-0
f. i. ii.

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the area of the sector ABC (fig. 22) which is greater than a semi-circle, half of the arc AB being 72f. 6i. and the radius AD is 56f. 3i.

72-50
56-25
—
36250
14500
43500
36250
—
Area 4078,1250

Art. XXV. To find the area of a segment of a circle, the chord and height of the arc being given.

RULE 1.—Find the length of the arc ABC (fig. 23) by Art. 19, and the radius of the circle by Art. 20, the area of the sector ABCE by Art. 24. Subtract the area of the triangle AEC as found by Art. 6, from the area of the sector, and the remainder will be the area of the segment.

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the area of the segment of a circle ABC (fig. 23) the chord AC being 48 feet and the height BD 18 feet. The length of the arc will be found to be 64 feet and the radius 25 feet, then

2)64 25
— —18
32 —
×25 7 perpendicular DE.
— 48
160 —
64 2)336
— 168 area of the triangle ACE
800 area of the sector.
168

632 area of the segment.

RULE 2.—To two thirds of the product of the base multiplied by the height, add the cube of the height divided by twice the length of the segment and the sum will be nearly the area.

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the area of a circular segment, the chord being 48 feet, and the height 18 feet.

48 18
× 18 ×18
— —
384 144
48 18
— —
3)864 324
288 ×18
— —
×2 2592
— 324
576 —
+60-75 2×48 = 96)5832(60-75
— 576
636-75 the area required.

To find the area of a segment of a circle which is greater than a semi-circle as ABC (fig. 24.)

RULE 3.—Find the length of the arc ABC by Art. 19, and the radius AD by Art. 20, thence find the whole area of the sector ABCD by Art. 24, Example 2; and then find the area of the triangle ACD by Art. 6, and add the area of the triangle to the area of the sector, and it will give the whole area of the segment.

EXAMPLE 3.—What is the area of a segment of a circle ABC (fig. 24.) Suppose the half arc AB to be 86 feet, the radius AD or CD 40 feet, and the chord AC 68 feet.

1/2 arc AB = 86
radius AD = 40
chord AC = 68
side AD = 40 74 74 74
side GD = 40 68 40 40
—
3440=area of the sector ABC
716=area of triangle ACD
—
4156=whole area of seg. ABC
—
74
6
—
444
34 141)233
—
1776
1332 1426)9164
—
15096
34 608
—
60384
45288
—
513264

that part of a circle laying between two parallel chords, and the parts of the circle intercepted by the chords.

RULE.—First find the area of the whole circle by Art. 14, then find the area of the two segments of the circle by Art. 25, and subtract the areas of the two segments from the area of the whole circle; and the remainder will be the area of the zone.

Art. XXVII. To find the area of a Lune or Crescent. A Lune is a figure made by two circular arcs which intersect each other, as ABCD in (fig. 26.)

RULE.—If it be a semi-circle, first find the whole area of the semi-circle ABC by Art. 16, then find the area of the segments ADC by Art. 25, and subtract the area of the segment from the area of the semi-circle, and the remainder will be the area of the Lune ABCD. But if it be a segment of a circle, first find the area of the whole segment ABC by Art. 25, then find the area of the lesser segment ADC (by the same Art.) and subtract the area of the lesser segment from the area of the greater, and the remainder will be the area of the Lune ABCD, &c.

Art. XXVIII. To find the area of Compound Figures. Mixed or compound figures are such as are composed of rectilineal and curvilinear figures together, as (fig. 27.)

RULE.—First find the area of the trapezium ABCD by Art. 8, then find the area of the segments AED and BFC by Art. 25, and add the areas all together and you will have the area of the whole figure.

Art. XXIX. To find the circumference of an ellipsis, the transverse and conjugate axis being given.

RULE.—Multiply half the sum of the two axis by 3; to the product add 1/7 part of the sum of the two axis, and this sum will give the circumference near enough for most practical purposes.

What is the circumference of an ellipsis whose transverse axis AB (fig. 28.) is 24 feet, and the conjugate CD 18 feet.

24
×18
—
2)42
—
21
×3 1/7
—
63
×3
—
66 feet the circumference.

Art. XXX. To find the area of an ellipsis, the transverse and conjugate axes being given.

RULE.—Multiply the transverse axis by the conjugate, and the product by 7854, will give the area required.

What is the area of an ellipsis whose transverse axis AB (fig. 28.) is 30 feet, and the conjugate CD 20 feet.

30 7854
×20 ×600
— —
600 Area 471,2400

NOTE.—Ellipsis of a large size, are frequently laid out in gardens of which they can be accurately drawn, by driving two pins into the ground at the foci of the ellipsis, for the chord to revolve around, (as described in Geometry Problem 38.)

Art. XXXI. To find the area of an Elliptical Ring, or the space included between the circumference of two concentric and similar Ellipsis.*

RULE.—First find the area of the greater ellipsis ABCD (fig. 29.) by Art. 30; then find the area of the lesser EFGH (by the same Art.) and subtract the area of the lesser from the area of the greater, and the remainder will be the area of the ring; or from the product of the two diameters of the greater ellipsis, subtract the product of the two diameters of the lesser; the remainder multiplied by 7854 will be the area of the ring.

NOTE.—This rule will also serve for a circular ring; for when the diameters of each ellipsis become equal to the square of the diameter of the greater circle diminished by the square of the diameter of the less, and the remainder multiplied by .7854 is the area of the circular ring, or, multiply the sum of the diameters by their difference, and that product into .7854 for the area of a circular ring.

Art. XXXII. To find the area of a parabola, the base or double ordinate being given, and the axis or height.

RULE.—Multiply the base by the height, and two thirds of this product will be the area required.

What is the area of the parabola ABC (fig. 30) the axis CD being 12f. 3i. and the double ordinate AB 18f. 6i.

12-25
×18-50
—
61250
9800
1225
—
3)2266250
—
755416
×2
—
Area 151,0832

* It is here supposed that the difference between the conjugate diameters is equal to the difference between the transverse diameters, but it is well known, that in this case the elliptic arc will not be every where equi-distant; the difference between the semi-transverse or semi-conjugate diameters being the least distance between the arc.

Art. XXVI. To find the area of a circular zone as in (fig. 25.) which is

Art. XXXIII. To find the area AB, CD (fig. 31) of the frustum of a parabola whose parallel ends AB and CD are given, also their distance EF.

RULE.—To the square of the greatest end, add the square of the lesser end, to the product of the ends; divide the sum by the sum of the ends, and the quotient multiplied by the distance of the ends, two thirds of the product will be the answer.

Suppose the end AB 24, the end CD 20, and their distance EF 5; required the area ABCD.

24	20	33	24
× 24	× 20	5	20
96	400	3) 165	480
48	576		
576	480	55	
		2	

24+20=44) 1456 (33
132
110 Answer nearly.

136
132
4

Art. XXXIV. To find the area of a cylinder.

RULE.—Multiply the circumference by the length of the cylinder and the product will be the area.

What is the area of the cylinder AB, CD, (fig. 32,) whose diameter AB being 24 inches, and the perpendicular height or length EF is 128 inches.

First I find the circumference by Art. 12, of which is $75\frac{4}{5}$ inches, this multiplied by 128 inches, the length, and divided by 144, gives $67\frac{1}{5}$ feet the area.

as 7:22::24	75.42
22	128
48	60336
48	15084
	7542
7) 528 (75.42 circumference	
49	144) 965376 (67.04 Area.
	864
38	
35	1013
	1008
30	
28	576
	576
20	
14	

There is to be a circular stair-case built around this cylinder containing 15 treads and 16 risers; I demand what the width of these treads and risers will be and also the length of the hand rail.

First I divide the 15 treads by $75\frac{4}{5}$ inches, which gives $5\frac{2}{5}$ inches for the width of the treads, being a trifle over 5 inches, then I divide the 16 risers by 128 inches, and it gives 8 inches for the height of the risers, and by squaring the circumference and perpendicular height, then extract the square root of the two sums, and it gives the length of the rail as required.

15) 75.42 (5.028	16) 128 (8	128
75	128	128
42		1024
30		256
		128
120		16384
120		5688 in parts.

75.42	2' 20" 72 (148.56 length of rail.
75.42	1
15084	24) 120
30168	96
37710	
52794	288) 2472
	2304
5688, 1764	
	2965) 16800
	14825
	29706) 197500
	178236

MENSURATION OF SOLIDS.

SECTION II.

Solid measure is the finding the number of cubic inches, feet, yards, &c. contained in any thing that consists of length, breadth and thickness. The least solid measure is a cubic inch, and all solids are measured by cubes whose sides are inches, feet, yards, &c., and the solidity of a body is said to be so many cubic inches, feet, yards, &c., as will fill the same space as the solid, or as the solid will contain; that is, $12 \times 12 \times 12 = 1728$ cubic inches, which makes one cubic or solid foot.

A Table of Cubic Measure.

1728 cubic or solid inches, make 1 solid foot.
27 " " feet, " 1 " yard.
166 $\frac{2}{3}$ " " yards, " 1 " pole.
64000 " " poles, " 1 " furlong.
512 " " furlongs, " 1 " mile.

Art. XXXV. Of a Cube. A Cube is a solid of six equal sides, each of which is an exact square.

To find the solidity.

RULE.—Multiply the side of the cubic into itself, and that product again by the side; and the last product will be the solidity.

What is the solidity of a cube as ABCD (fig. 33, pl. 34, of Mensuration,) whose sides are 12 inches, or 12 feet.

12	12
12	12
144	144
12	12
1728 inches.	1728 feet.

Art. XXXVI. To find the solidity of a parallelopipedon. A parallelopipedon, is a solid, having six rectangular sides, every opposite pair of which are equal and parallel.

RULE.—Multiply the breadth by the depth, and that product by the length and it will give the solid contents.

EXAMPLE 1.—How many cubic feet is there in a rectangular box as ABCDE (fig. 34.) whose breadth AB, is 2f. 4i., depth AC, is 3f. 8i. and length DE, 12f. 3i.

AC=3-8	Or thus AC=44 inches.
AB=2-4	AB=28 inches.
1-2-8	352
7-4	88
8-6-8 area of base.	1232 area of base.
DE=12-3-0	DE=147 inches.
2-1-6-0-0	8624
102-8-0	4928
Ans. 104-9-6-0-0	1232
f. i. p.	1728) 181104 (104,80 Ans.
	1728
	8304
	6912
	13920
	13824
	96

EXAMPLE 2.—How many feet of wood is there in a load whose breadth is 3f. 10 in., and depth 4f. 3 in., and 8 feet long.

3-10
4-3
11-6
15-4
16-3-6 area of the end.
8
Ans. 130-4-0
f. i. p.

Art. XXXVII. To find the solidity of a prism; a prism is a body with two equal or parallel ends, either square, triangular or polygonal, and three or more sides which meet in parallel lines, running from the several angles at one end to those of the other.

RULE.—Prisms of all kinds, whether square, triangular or polygonal are measured by one general rule, viz. First find the area of the end or base, by Art. 11, and then multiply the area of the end by the perpendicular height or length of the prism, it will give the solid content.

EXAMPLE 1.—How many feet of timber is there in a stick of which is hewn three square, as ABC (fig. 35) the sides being 16 inches, and the perpendicular EF is 7 inches, and the length CD is 14 feet.

AB=16 inches	or thus, area of base=112 inches
EF=7 inches	length CD=168 inches
112 area of base	896
CD=14 feet	672
448	112
112	
144) 1568 (10.80 ans.	1728) 18816 (10.80 ans.
144	1728
	15360
1280	13824
1152	
	1536
128	

Example 2, How many feet is there in the octagon, or eight squared stick, as ABCDEFGH (fig. 36) the sides being 6 inches and $\frac{1}{2}$ wide, and half of the perpendicular height is 4 inches the length 18 feet 6 inches.

the sides is=53 inches
 $\frac{1}{2}$ perp. = 4 inches
 212 area of the end
 length EK=185 inches

1060
 1696
 212
 144)39220(27.23 ans.
 288

1042
 1008

340
 288

520
 432

88

Art. XXXVIII. To find the solidity of a cylinder.
 Rule.—The diameter of a base being given, find the area of the end by Art. 14, then multiplying the area of the base by the length, that product will be the contents of the cylinder.

What is the solidity of a cylinder as (fig. 37) whose height CD is 12 feet, and the diameter AB of the base 2f 6i.

2.5 7854
 2.5 625
 12.5 39270
 50. 15708
 62.5 47124
 4908750 area of the base.
 12

ans. 58.905000

NOTE.—If the circumference of a cylinder be given, multiply the square of the circumference by 0.7958 and the product will be the area of the base, then multiply the area of the base by the length, and it will give you the solid content.

Art. XXXIX. To find the solidity of a cylindroid.
 Rule.—The diameter of the base being given, find the area of the end by Art. 30, then multiplying the area of the end by the length, that product will be the content of the cylindroid.

What is the solidity of a cylindroid as ABCDE (fig. 38) the transverse axis AB is 3f 9in, and the conjugate axis CD is 2f 3in the length DE 10f.

AB=375 84375
 CD=225 7854
 1875 337500
 750 421875
 750 675000
 84375 690625
 662681250 area of base
 10

ans. 66.26812500

Art. XL. To find the solidity of a pyramid.
 Rule. Find the area of the base, whether triangular, square, polygonal, or circular, by the rules already mentioned in superficial measure; then multiply this area by one third of the height, and the product will be the solid content of the pyramid.

Example 1. In a triangular pyramid ABC (fig. 39) the height DF being 15f 9i and each side of the base is 6f 6i the perpendicular DE 2f 10i.

side AB=6.6 or thus AB=6.5
 perp DE=2.10 6.5
 5.5.0 325
 13.0 390
 18.5.0 4225
 $\frac{1}{3}$ of DF= 5.3 tab. area=4330
 4.7.3 126750
 92.1 12675
 16900
 18.29.4250
 $\frac{1}{3}$ of DF=5.25
 9145
 3658
 9145
 ans. 96.8.3

Ans. 96.0225

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the solidity of a quadrangular pyramid, the height EF (fig. 40) being 30f. 6i., and each side of the base is 12f. 7i.

Sides=12-7
 12-7
 7-4-1
 151-0
 158-4-1 area of base,

$\frac{1}{3}$ EF= 10-2
 26-4-8-2
 1583-4-10

Ans. 1609-9-6-2

EXAMPLE 3.—What is the solidity of a hexagon pyramid as (fig. 41,) the height GH being 39 feet, the sides ABC &c. is 14 f. 6i. and the perpendicular IG 12f. 6i.

$\frac{1}{2}$ of sides=43-6
 perp. IG=12-6

21- 9-0
 522- 0

543- 9-0 area of base,
 $\frac{1}{3}$ of height=13

1638- 9
 543

Ans. 7068- 9

EXAMPLE 4. What is the solidity of a cone, the diameter AB (fig. 42) being 9 feet, the height CD 27 feet.

9
 9
 81 square of the diameter.
 7854 tab. multiplier.

7854
 62832

63,6174 area of base,
 $9=\frac{1}{3}$ of height.

572,5568=content.

Art. XLI. To find the solidity of the frustum of a pyramid. A frustum of a pyramid is what remains after the top is cut off by a plane parallel to the base.

Rule.—If it be a frustum of a square pyramid, multiply the side of the greater base by the side of the less; to this product add one third of the square of the difference of the sides, and the sum will be the mean area between the bases; but if the base be a triangular, polygon or any regular figure, multiply this sum by the proper multiplier of its figure in the table (Art. 11) and the product will be the mean area between the bases; lastly multiply this by the height, and it will give the content of the frustum.

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the solidity of the triangular frustum of a pyramid, the sides of the greater base AB (fig. 43) being 9 feet, the side of the less CD 6 feet, and the height EF is 10 feet.

AB=9 9
 CD=6 6
 3 difference of the sides. 54
 $\times 3$ Add 3
 3)9=square of the difference. 57
 3= $\frac{1}{3}$ of the square. 433 tab. multiplier.

171
 171
 228

24,681=mean area.
 10=height.

246,810=content.

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the solidity of a frustum of a square pyramid, the side of the greater base AB (fig. 44) being 9 feet, the side of the less CD 6 feet, and the height ED is 10 feet.

AB=9 9
 CD=6 6
 3=difference. 54
 $\times 3$ add 3
 3)9=square of the difference. 57 mean area.
 3= $\frac{1}{3}$ of the square. height ED=10
 570=content.

EXAMPLE 3.—What is the solidity of a frustum of an octagonal pyramid, whose sides AB (fig. 45) of the greater base is 9 feet (as before,) the lesser CD 6 feet, and the height ED 10 feet.

AB=9	AB=9
CD=6	CD=6
—	—
3=difference of the sides.	54
X 3	Add 3
—	—
3)9=square of the difference.	57
—	4828 tab. multiplier.
3= $\frac{1}{3}$ of the square.	33796
	24140
	—
	275196=mean area.
	10=height.
	—
	2751,960 content.

In measuring square timber where the sticks run tapering, the best method is, viz: Take the girth of it in the middle; square $\frac{1}{3}$ of the girth, or multiply it by itself in inches. Then say as 144 inches is to that product, so is the length taken in feet, to the contents in feet.

EXAMPLE 4.—What is the solidity of a tapering square stick of timber, whose sides of the largest end is 14 inches, the least end 10, and the length 40 feet.

One fourth of the girth in the middle=12 and $12 \times 12=144$, the area in the middle; then as $144 : 144 : 40$ feet : 40 feet the content.

or thus $12 \times 12=144$

40=length.

144)5760(40 content.

576

0

There is more timber of this description measured by the following rule, than any other, viz: By adding the area of the two ends together, and one half of the sum multiplied into the length and divided by 144 for the solid content; but it is not so correct as the former, see the following example.

$$\begin{array}{r} 14 \times 14 = 196 \\ 10 \times 10 = 100 \\ \hline 2)296 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 148 \\ \times 40 = \text{length.} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

144)5920(41,11 content.

576

160

144

160

144

160

144

16

There is more than a foot's difference in the two examples; but in measuring small timber of not much value, this rule may apply; to find the area of a board that runs wedging, this rule is correct, as may be seen by Art. 5. And if it be a tapering three square stick of timber, you may find the area midway from the end, then as 144 is to the area, so is the length taken in feet, to the content in feet. Or by multiplying the area of the two bases together, and to the square root of the product add the two areas; that sum, multiplied by one third of the length, will give the solidity of any frustum.

EXAMPLE 5. What is the solidity of a tapering square stick of timber, the greater end being 14 inches (as in example 4) the lesser end 10, and the length 40 feet.

$$\begin{array}{r} 14 \times 14 = 196 \\ 10 \times 10 = 100 \\ \hline 1-96-00(140 \\ 1 \\ \hline 24)96 \\ 96 \\ \hline 00 \end{array}$$

Area=196	100
	140
	—
	436
$\frac{1}{3}$ of 40=13,33	1308
	1308
	1308
	436
	—
	144)581188(40,36=content.
	576
	—
	518
	432
	—
	868
	864
	—
	4

Art. XLII. To find the solidity of a wedge as ABCDEF, (fig. 46.)
RULE.—Multiply the area of the base ABC, by the length BE, and half of the product will give the solidity.

Required the solidity of a wedge ABCDEF, the side AB being 9 inches, and AC 18 inches, the length BE 4 feet.

AC=18	2)4,50
AB=9	—
—	2,25=content.
162	
BE=4	
—	
144)648(4,50	
576	
—	
720	
720	
—	

Art. XLIII. To find the solidity of a frustum of a cone.

RULE.—Multiply the diameters of the two bases together, and to the product add one third of the square of the difference of the diameters; then multiplying this sum by 7854 it will be the mean area between the two bases; which being multiplied by the length of the frustum, will give the solid content.

NOTE.—In general way in measuring or gauging a frustum, it is best to find the mean area in inches. Then by multiplying the inches by the height in feet, and by dividing the product by 12, the quotient will be the answer in board measure, or divide by 144, the quotient will be in square measure; or if you multiply the mean area in inches, by the height in inches, and divide the product by 1728, gives it also in square feet; and when we have the solid content in cubic inches, we can easily find the number of gallons and bushels, &c., by dividing by 231 for wine gallons, 282 for ale gallons, and by 2150.4 for bushels; of gauging, this part will be fully explained hereafter.

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the solidity of a frustum of a cone; whose greater base AB (fig. 47) being 60 inches, the lesser CD 51 inches, and the perpendicular height EF 6 feet 6 inches.

AB=60	60
CD=51	51
—	—
60	9=difference.
300	X 9
—	—
3060	3)81 square of the difference.
Add 27	—
3087	27= $\frac{1}{3}$ of the square.
7854	—
—	144)157560(109,41 feet content.
12348	144
15435	1356
24696	1296
21609	—
—	600
2424,5298=mean area.	576
6,5 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet=length.	—
12120	240
14544	144
—	96
157560=content.	

EXAMPLE 2. What is the solidity of a mast or spar, whose diameter is 30 inches at one end, and 18 inches at the other, and 80 feet long.

30	7854 tab. multiplier.	30
18	X 588	18
—	—	—
240	62832	12=difference.
30	62832	X 12
—	39270	—
540	—	3)144 square of the difference.
Add 48	46181,52=mean area.	—
588	80=length.	48= $\frac{1}{3}$ of the square.
—	—	—
144)3694480(256,56 feet content.		
288		
—		
814		
720		
—		
944		
864		
—		
808		
720		
—		
880		
864		
—		
16		

Art. XLIV. To find the solidity of an ellipsis frustum of a cone.

RULE.—Find the area of the two bases by Art. 30, and thence multiply the areas of the two bases together, and to the square root of the product add the two areas; that sum multiplied by one third of the height. This rule will give the solidity of any frustum; for it is plain when figures run uniformly taper but not to a point, they being considered as portions of the cone or pyramid; we may find the solidity by supplying what is wanting to complete the figure, and then deducting the part cut off.

A general rule for completing every straight sided solid whose ends are parallel and similar: As the difference of the top and bottom diameters is to the perpendicular height, so is the longest diameter to the altitude of the whole cone or pyramid.

EXAMPLE.—What is the solidity of a frustum of a cone, as ABCD, EFGH, (fig. 48) whose transverse axis AB of the greater base is 60 inches, the conjugate axis CD 42 inches, and the transverse axis EF of the lesser base 40 inches, and the conjugate GH 28 inches, the height DH 6 feet.

The area of the greater base ABCD=1979 inches.	1979=area.
The area of the lesser base EFGH= 879 inches.	879=area.
	1318=sq. root of prod
17811	
13853	4176
15832	2= $\frac{1}{3}$ of height.
17379541(1318	144)8352(58 feet content.
1	720
23)73	1152
69	1152
261)495	
261	
2628)23441	
21024	
2417	

Art. XLV. To find the solidity of a parabolic conoid; the diameter AB (fig. 49) of the base being given, and the perpendicular height CD.

RULE 1. Multiply the square of the diameter of the base by .3927, and the product by the height will give the solidity.

EXAMPLE 1. What is the solidity of a parabolic conoid, whose diameter AB is 30 feet, and the height 50 feet.

3927 multiplier.
AB 30X30 = 900
3534,300
50=height.
17671,700 the solidity required.

RULE 2.—Multiply the area of the base by the height, and half the product will be the solid content.

EXAMPLE 2. AB 30X30=900 (as before.

7854
900
7068600=area.
50=height.
2)353430000
17671.5=content.

Art. XLVI. To find the solidity of the frustum of a parabolic conoid; the greater diameter AB, (fig. 50) the lesser CD, and the perpendicular height EF, being given.

RULE.—To the square of the diameter of the greater end AB, add the square of the diameter of the lesser end CD; multiply the sum by 3927, (being one half of 7854,) and the product by the height EF will give the solidity required.

What is the solidity of a parabolic frustum, the diameter of the greater end AB being 5 feet, the lesser end CD 4 feet, and the distance of the ends EF 4 feet.

AB 5X5=25	3927
CD 4X4=16	41
41 sum.	3927
	15708
	161007
4=the distance EF.	
64,4028=content.	

Art. XLVII. To find the solidity of a parabolic spindle.

RULE.—Multiply the square of the middle diameter by .41888 (being $\frac{1}{15}$ of .7854) and that product by its length; the last product is the solid content.

What is the solidity of a parabolic spindle whose middle diameter AB (fig. 51) is 30 inches, and its length CD 5 feet.

AB=30	41888
30	900
900=square.	37699200
5=length.	

carried up.

144)1884960(13,09 content.

144
444
432
1296
1296

Art. XLVIII. To find the solidity of a sphere or globe.

RULE.—Multiply the cube of the diameter by 5236 and the product is the solidity.

What is the solidity of a globe whose diameter AB (fig. 52) is 4 feet.

AB=4	5236
4	64
16	20944
4	31416

64 cube. 33,5104 content.

NOTE.—If it be a sphere of a semi-circle as in (fig. 53,) first find the whole solidity as in (fig. 52,) and divide the product by 2, and the quotient will be the answer.

Art. XLIX. To find the solidity of a segment of a globe.

RULE.—To three times the square of the semi-diameter of the base, add the square of the height; then multiplying that sum by the height, and then the product multiplied by 5236 will give the solidity.

What is the solidity of a spherical segment; the diameter of the base AB (fig. 54) being 18 feet, and the height of the segment CD is 4 feet.

$\frac{1}{2}$ of 18 is=9 the semi-diameter.	5236
9	1036
31=square.	31416
X3	15708
243	52360
4X4=16	542,4496=solid content.
259	
X4=height.	
1036	

Art. L. To find the solidity of a spherical zone, the radius AB (fig. 55) and CD of the two parallel circles at the end being given and their distance BC.

RULE.—To the square of the two radii add one third of the square of the height; multiply the sum by the height, and the product by 1.5708, will give the solidity.

What is the solidity of a spherical zone, whose greater radius AB is 10 feet, the lesser CD 8 feet, and the height or distance of the ends BC is 6 feet.

AB 10X10=100	6	1,5708
CD 8X8=64	6	1056
Add 12		
176	3)36=square.	94248
X6=height.	12= $\frac{1}{2}$ of the sq.	78540
1056		157080
		1658,7648=content.

Art. LI. To find the solidity of a spheroid, the fixed axis and the revolving axis being given.

RULE.—Multiply the square of the revolving axis by the fixed axis, and that product by .5236 for the solidity.

What is the solidity of a prolate spheroid whose transverse axis CD (fig. 56) is 10 feet, and the conjugate AB 6 feet.

AB=6	5236
6	360
36	314160
CD=10	15708
360	188,4960=content.

Art. LII. To find the solidity of an annulus or a cylindric ring, whose thickness and inner diameter are known.

RULE 1.—To the thickness of the annulus, add the inner diameter; multiply the sum by the square of the thickness, and the product by 2.4674 will give the solidity sought.

What is the solidity of an annulus, whose inner diameter AB (fig. 57) is 8 inches, and the thickness of the annulus BC is 3 inches.

8	2,4674
3	99
11	222066
3X3=9	222066
99	244,2726=content.

RULE 2.—Multiply the circumference round the middle of the annulus, or that circle generated by the centre of the generating circle, by the area of the generating circle, and the product will give the solidity.

NOTE.—This last method will give the solidity of any part of an annulus or ring comprehended between any two planes passing through the fixed axis.

OF THE FIVE REGULAR SOLIDS.

DEFINITIONS 1. A regular solid, is a body that either may be inscribed or circumscribed by a sphere, in such a manner as to be contained under equal and similar planes; alike posited, and equally distant from the centre of the sphere.

II. The *Tetraedron*, is contained under four equilateral triangles.

III. The *Hexaedron*, is contained under six equal squares.

IV. The *Octaedron*, is contained under eight equilateral triangles.

V. The *Dodecaedron*, is contained under twelve equilateral and equiangular pentagons.

VI. The *Icosaedron*, is contained under twenty equilateral triangles.

TO FIND THE SUPERFICES, AND SOLIDITY, OF ANY OF THE FIVE REGULAR BODIES.

To find the Superfices.—Multiply the area (taken from the following Table) by the square of the linear edge of the solid, for the superficies.

To find the Solidity.—Multiply the tabular solidity by the cube of the linear edge, for the solid content.

A Table of the Surfaces and Solidities of the five regular Solids.

No. of sides.	Names.	Surfaces.	Solidities.
4	Tetraedron	1.73205	0.11785
6	Hexaedron	6.00000	1.00000
8	Octaedron	3.46410	0.47140
12	Dodecaedron	20.64573	7.66312
20	Icosaedron	8.66025	2.18169

EXAMPLE 1.—If the linear edge or side of a tetraedron be 3, required it superficial and solid content. Thus $1.73205 \times 9 = 15.58845$ superficies.

And $0.11785 \times 27 = 3.18395$ solidity.

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the surface and solidity of the hexaedron, whose linear side is 2?

Answer { superficies = 24 }

{ solidity = 8 }

EXAMPLE 3.—Required the superficies and solidity of the octaedron, whose linear side is 2.

Answer. { superficies = 13.8564 }

{ solidity = 3.7712 }

EXAMPLE 4.—What is the superficies and solidity of the dodecaedron, whose linear side is 2?

Answer { superficies = 82.58292 }

{ solidity = 61.30496 }

EXAMPLE 5.—What is the superficies and solidity of an icosaedron, whose linear side is 2?

Answer { superficies = 34.641 }

{ solidity = 17.45352 }

For finding Convex Surfaces of Solids.

Art. LIII. To find the convex surfaces of a cube, or a square box as in (fig. 33, Pl. 34, of Mensuration.)

RULE.—Find the surface or area of one of the sides as in section first, and multiply it by 6, and the product will be the whole surface.

What is the convex superficies of a cube or a box whose sides is 2 feet 4 inches.

2-4

2-4

9-4

4-8

6-5-4

6

32-8-0 = the whole surface.

Art. LIV. To find the convex surfaces of a parallelopipedon as in (fig. 34.)

RULE.—Find the surfaces of the depth, breadth, and one of the ends, and double it, or multiply it by 2, which is the same thing.

What is the convex superficies of a parallelopipedon whose depth is 2f. 8i. and breadth 3f. 2i., and 4f. 7i. in length.

2-8

3-2

5-4

8-0

8-5-4 = the surface of one end.

2-8

3-2

5-10 = depth and breadth.

4-7 = length.

3-4-10

23-4

add 8-5-4

35-2-2 = whole surface.

Art. LV. To find the convex surfaces of any prism, as in (figures 35, and 36.)

RULE.—Multiply the circumference of the base by the length of the prism, the product will be the upright surface, to which add the area of the bases; the sum will be the whole surface.

Art. LVI. To find the convex surfaces of a cylinder.

RULE.—Multiply the circumference by the length of the cylinder (as in figs. 37, 38,) the product will be the surface of the length, thence add the area, or the surfaces of the two ends, and the sum will give the whole surface.

Art. LVII. To find the convex superficies of a pyramid or a right cone, (as in figures 39, 40, 41, and 42,) the circumference and slant side being given.

RULE.—Multiply the circumference of the base by the slant side of the cone and half the product will be the area; or multiply the slant height by half the circumference of the base, and the product will be the upright surface. To which the area of the base may be added, for the whole surface.

Art. LVIII. To find the convex surface of a frustum of a right cone as in (figs. 43, 44, 45, 47, and 48) the circumferences of both ends being given, and the slant side of the cone.

RULE.—Multiply the sum of the circumferences by the slant side of the cone, and half the product will be the area.

Or multiply half the sum of the perimeters of the two bases by the slant height and to the product add the areas of the two bases for the whole surface.

Art. LIX. To find the superficies of a sphere or globe as in (fig. 52.) the greatest circumference being given.

RULE.—Multiply the square of the circumference by .3183, and the product will be the superficies.

EXAMPLE. What is the superficies of a globe the greatest circumference being 10.6 feet. Thus $10.6 \times 10.6 \times .3183 = 35.764188$ the superficies required.

Art. LX. To find the convex superficies of the segment, sphere, or globe, as in (fig. 54.) the diameter of the base of the segment, and its height, being given.

RULE.—To the square of the diameter of the base add the square of twice the height, and the sum multiplied by .7854 will give the superficies.

EXAMPLE. What is the convex surface of the segment of a globe, the diameter of the base being 17.25 feet, and the height 4.5 feet.

$2 \times 4.5 = 9$ twice the height.

$9 \times .9 = 81$ square of twice the height.

—2

$17.25 = 297.5825$ square of the diameter of the base.

Then $297.5825 + 81 \times .7854 = 297.3229975$ the superficies required.

Art. LXI. To find the convex surfaces of a spherical zone, the diameters of the ends and their distance being given, as in (fig. 55.)

RULE.—Find the diameter of the sphere by Arts. 21, and 22, in section first of superficies; then multiply the diameter of the sphere, and the distance of the parallel ends of the zone together, and the product by 3.1416, will be the superficies required.

EXAMPLE. In a spherical zone the distance of the parallel ends being 4 inches the diameter of the greater end 24 inches, and that of the lesser end 20 inches, what is the convex superficies, when the centre of the sphere is without the zone.

The distance of the greater chord from the centre, will be found to be 3.5 inches by Art. 21.

The radius will be found to be 25 inches, by Art. 22 or the diameter 50 inches. Then $50 \times 4 \times 3.1416 = 628.92$ the answer.

NOTE.—If the diameter is given, find the circumference, and proceed as before.

Art. LXII. To find the convex superficies of an annulus, or ring as in (fig. 57.) whose thickness and inner diameters are known.

RULE 1.—To the thickness of the ring add the inner diameter; multiply the sum by the thickness, and the product by 9.869 will give the superficies required.

RULE 2.—Multiply the circumference of the generating circle by the circumference round the middle of the ring, or that line generated by the centre of the generating circles and the product will be the area.

NOTE.—This last method will give the convex superficies of any part of an annulus or ring, comprehended between two planes passing through the fixed axis.

EXAMPLE. What is the convex superficies of an annulus or ring, whose inner diameter is 8 inches, and the thickness 3 inches.

Thus $3 + 8 \times 3 \times 9.869 = 325.677$ the superficies required.

Of measuring irregular surfaces and solids.

Definition. An irregular surface or solid, is such a surface or solid as have their bounds by lines or surfaces in any manner whatever, of no particular kind of form or shape but merely accidental, according as they are to be found or given.

Art. LXIII. To measure any irregular surface whatever by means of equidistant ordinates.

RULE 1.—To the half sum of the two outside ordinates, add the sum of all the other remaining ordinates; multiply the whole sum by the distance between any two ordinates, and the product will be the superficial content.

EXAMPLE 1. Let (fig. 53, pl. 24, of mensuration) be the curve proposed, whose equidistant ordinates, AB, CD, EF, GH, IK, LM, and NO, are respectively 5f. 5f. 6f. 6f. 7f. 9f. 10f. and 8f. and the distance of AC, CE, EG, &c. is 3 feet, required the area of the curve.

AB=5

NO=8

—

2)13

—

6.6 = half the sum of the outside ordinates.

CD=5.6

EF=6.0

GH=7.0

IK=9.0

LM=10.0

—

44.0

3

—

132 = superficies.

EXAMPLE 2. Let ABCD (fig. 59) be a circle whose diameter AC or BD is 10 feet, it is required to find the area by means of equidistant ordinates, marked 3f. 4f. 4.5f. 4.9f. and 5f. being at the distance of 1 foot from each other.

0
5
—
2)5
—
2.5 halfsum of the outside ordinates.
3
4
4.5
4.9
—
18.9 area of one quarter.
4
—

75.6 feet, area of the whole.

If the diameter, which is 10 feet, be multiplied by .7854, the product, 78.54, will be the area. From hence it appears that the mode of operation by means of equidistant ordinates, is very near the truth in measuring irregular planes; for it will produce the area of a circle, which is one of the most oblique curves possible as the ends raise quite perpendicular to the axis, from only 10 equidistant spaces within the $\frac{1}{4}$ part of the truth; and would be still nearer when applied to measuring any plane surface, where it is bounded partly by concave and partly by convex curves; because, if wholly bounded by a convex curve, or curves, the area will be something less than the truth, but if bounded by a concave curve, or curves, the area will be something greater than the truth; and if the extremities of the ordinates are joined by straight lines, the area so found will be exactly true; but the following is a method of approximation still nearer the truth, whether the curve be convex or concave to the axis.

RULE 2.—Divide the given curve, by ordinates, into any even number of equal parts, then add into one sum four times the sum of all the even ordinates; twice the sum of all the odd ordinates except the first and last, and also the first and last ordinates; and if one third of that sum be multiplied by the common distance between any two ordinates, the product will be the answer.

EXAMPLE 1. Let (fig. 58) be a curve of any kind, whose equidistant ordinates AB, CD, EF, GH, IK, LM, and NO, are respectively 5f. 5f. 6f. 6f. 7f. 9f. 10f. and 8f., and the distance between the ordinates is 3f. required the area of the curve.

CD, GH, and LM, will be the even ordinates; that is the second, fourth, and sixth; EF and IK, the odd ordinates, that is, the third and fifth; AB and NO, the first and last.

f. i.	f.
CD=5.6	EF=6
GH=7.0	IK=9
LM=10.0	—
—	15
22.6	2
4	—
—	30
90.0 four times the sum of the even ordinates.	
30.0 twice the sum of the odd ordinates.	
5.0 first ordinate.	
8.0 last ordinate.	
—	
3)133.0 sum	
—	
44.4	
3	
—	

133.0 the area or superficial content.

Now by comparing this area, viz: 133 feet, with the area found in rule 1, example 1, viz: 132 feet, there appears to be a difference of 1 foot; but the last method is the most correct.

EXAMPLE 2. Let ACEGILN (fig. 60) be a concave curve, whose equidistant ordinates A, BC, DE, FG, HI, KL, and MN, are respectively 0, 1, 3, 6, 10, 15, 21, and the common distance 2, required the area.

By example 1.

0
21
—
2)21
—
10.5
1
3
6
10
15
—
45.5
2
—

91.0 the area greater than the truth.

By Example 2.

3
10
—
13
2
—
26

88 four times the sum of the even ordinates.
26 twice the sum of the odd ordinates.
0 first ordinate.
21 last ordinate. carried up.

3)135
—
45
2 common distance.

90 the area very near the truth

EXAMPLE 3. Let AHI (fig. 61) be a parabola, whose ordinates, A, BC, DE, FG, and HI, are respectively 0, 7, 12, 15, and 16, and their common distance 6, required the area of the curve.

7	12
15	2
—	—
22	24
4	—
—	—
88 four times the sum of the even ordinates.	
24 twice the sum of the odd ordinates.	
16 sum of the end.	
—	

3)128
—
42 $\frac{2}{3}$
6
—

256 the true area.

Art. LXIV. To find the superficial content of a mixed figure, partly a curve and partly right lined.

RULE.—Find the area of the curve part of the figure by the last example, by dividing it into equidistant ordinates; divide the right lined parts of the figure by ordinates drawn through every angle, which will divide the right lined parts of the figure into trapezoids and triangles; find the area of each part, according to their respective rules add the areas of all the parts together, and the sum will give the area of the whole figure.

EXAMPLE. Let ABKNORS (fig. 62) be the figure proposed to find its area.

As the end AB turns round nearly perpendicular to the base AS, draw the ordinate CB in such a manner, as it may cut off the most perpendicular part of the curve AB at the end, and divide it by ordinates, which are respectively 1, 2, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 0, at the distance of 3 from each other; the part CBKL of the equidistant space is also divided into four equal parts, between the first and last ordinates BC, KL by the ordinates ED, GF, HI, and LK, which are respectively 12, 13, 12, 10, 9, and their common distance 4; the other parts of the figure are divided into 3 trapezoids, KLMN, MNOP, OPQR, and the triangle QRS, by ordinates from the angles at K, N, O, and R; the whole figure being thus prepared, by dividing it into curvilinear parts, trapezoids, and triangles, each part will be measured according to their respective rules. The measures or dimensions are marked on their respective places on the figure; the contents of each part is computed separately, as is shown in the following operation.

1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	13	12	9
2	1	10	2	16
—	—	—	—	—
3	3	23	24	2)25
—	4	4	—	—
—	—	—	—	12 $\frac{1}{2}$
12	—	92	—	4
3	—	24	—	—
1	—	12	—	—
—	—	9	—	—
3)16	—	—	—	—
—	—	3)137	—	—
5 $\frac{1}{3}$	—	45.6	—	—
3	—	4	—	—
—	—	—	—	—

16 { area of the part ABC.

182.4 area of the part CBKL.

16.0	13	14	2)14
182.4	—	—	7
50.0	2)29	2)27	7
43.5	14.5	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
27.0	3	2	—
49.0	—	—	—
—	—	—	—

43.5 area of MNOP 27 area of OPQR
367.9 sum of the areas, or contents of the whole figure.

Art. LXV. To find the superficies of a groin.

RULE 1.—When the sides of the groin are semi-circles, to the area of the base add $\frac{1}{2}$ th part of itself and the sum will give the superficies required.

EXAMPLE 1. What is the curve superficies of a circular groin, each side of the square, base being 14 feet, as ABCD (fig. 65.)

14	7)196(28=to $\frac{1}{2}$
14	14
—	—
56	56
14	56
—	—

196 area of the base.

add 28

224 area of the groin.

RULE 2.—When the groin stands upon a rectangular plan, the sides being either segments of circles or segments of an ellipsis.

The area of each two opposite parts of the surfaces of the cylinders, or cylindroids may be computed in the following manner, viz: let ABCD (fig. 63) be the plan of the groin; AC and BD are the intersection of the planes of the diagonals; MNQO is one of the cylindrical, or cylindroid surfaces stretched out on a plane; HVI is one of the side arches. Then to find the area of any two opposite quarters of the cylindrical, or cylindroidal surfaces to the arch line HVI standing over BC on the plan; that is, NM when stretched out on the plane, add four times the arch standing over FG on the plan taken in the middle between the end BC, and the vertex at E, that is, QR when stretched out on the plane; multiply one third of the sum by ES, or PO, which is equal to it, and the product will be double the area of the two opposite cylindrical or cylindroidal surfaces, standing over AED and BEC.

EXAMPLE 2.—Let ABCD be the plan of a groin, the sides AB and BC are each equal to 8 feet; let MN, the length of the arch HVI, standing over BC on the plan, be 10 feet, and PO, equal to ES be 4 feet; that is the distance measured along from the vertex at E, to either of the ends at S, and QR the length of the arch over FG, be 4 feet; required the superficies of the groin.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 4 \\
 4 \\
 \hline
 16 \text{ four times QR.} \\
 10 \text{ the end.} \\
 \hline
 3)26 \\
 \underline{8-8 \text{ i.}} \\
 4 \\
 \hline
 34-8 \text{ area of the two opposite parts AED, and BEC.} \\
 2 \\
 \hline
 69-4 \text{ area of the whole groin standing over ABCD on the plan.}
 \end{array}$$

Art. LXVI.—To find the Tonnage of a Ship.

"By a law of the Congress of the United States of America, the tonnage of a ship is to be found in the following manner.

If the vessel be double-decked, take the length thereof from the fore part of the main stem to the after part of the stern post above the upper deck; the breadth thereof at the broadest part above the main wales, half of which breadth shall be accounted the depth of such vessel; and deduct from the length three fifths of the breadth, multiply the remainder by the breadth, and the product by the depth; divide this last product by ninety-five, and the quotient will be the true content or tonnage of such vessel.

If the vessel be single-decked, take the length and breadth as above directed, in respect to a double-decked vessel, and deduct from the length three fifths of the breadth, and taking the depth from the under side of the deck plank to the ceiling in the hold; multiply and divide as aforesaid, the quotient will be the true content or tonnage of such vessel."

EXAMPLE.—Suppose a double-decked vessel is 98 feet, and the breadth 30 feet; what is her tonnage.

$ \begin{array}{r} 30 \\ \times 3 \\ \hline 5)90 \\ \hline 18 = \frac{2}{3} \text{ of breadth.} \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} \text{Length}=98 \\ 18 = \frac{2}{3} \\ \hline 80 \\ \times 30 = \text{breadth.} \\ \hline 2400 \\ \frac{1}{3} \text{ of } 30 = 15 \\ \hline 12000 \\ 2400 \\ \hline 36000 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 95)36000(378-94 \text{ tonnage.} \\ \underline{285} \\ 750 \\ \underline{665} \\ 850 \\ \underline{760} \\ 900 \\ \underline{855} \\ 450 \\ \underline{380} \\ 70 \end{array} $
--	---	--

Carpenters, in finding the tonnage, multiply the length of the keel by the breadth of the main beam and the depth of the hold in feet, and divide the product by 95; the quotient is the number of tons. In double decked vessels, half the breadth is taken for the depth.

OF GAUGING.

GAUGING is the art of measuring and finding the contents of all kinds of vessels, in gallons or cubic inches; such as casks, brewers vessels, &c.

Having found the number of cubic inches in any body by the rules given in (section 2 of solids.) You may thence determine the contents in gallons, bushels, &c. by dividing that number of cubic inches in a gallon, hushel, &c. respectively.

A wine gallon, by which most liquors are measured, contains 231 cubic inches. A beer gallon by which beer, ale, and a few other liquors are measured, contains 282 cubic inches. A bushel of corn, malt, &c. contains 2150.4 cubic inches.

NOTE.—In all the following rules, it will be supposed that the dimensions of the body are given in inches and decimal parts of an inch.

Art. LXVII.—To find the number of gallons or bushels in a body of a cubic form, (see fig. 33, pl. 34 of mensuration.)

RULE.—Divide the cube of the side by 231, the quotient will be the answer in wine gallons, or by 282, and the quotient will be the answer in beer gallons; or by 2150.4 and the quotient will be the number of bushels.

EXAMPLE.—Required the number of wine gallons contained in a cubic cistern, the length of whose side is 60 inches. Multiplying 60 by itself, and the product again by 60 gives the solidity 216000; which divided by 231, gives the content 935.065 wine gallons.

In the like manner the content of any other figure may be found, by finding the number of cubic inches in the body by the rules already taught in section second of mensuration; then bring it into gallons, bushels, &c. by dividing the number of cubic inches found in the body by 231 for wine gallons, and by 282 for ale gallons; and by 2150.4 for bushels; or you may multiply the number of cubic inches found in the body by 004329 for wine gallons, and the product will be the number of gallons; and by 003546 for ale gallons; though the shortest and best method of gauging a frustum of a cone, and a body in a cylindrical form will be found by the following examples.

Art. LXVIII.—To find the number of gallons or bushels contained in a body of a cylindrical form (see fig. 37, pl. 34, of mensuration.)

RULE.—Multiply the square of the diameter by the height of the cylinder, and divide the product by 294, the quotient will be the number of wine gallons; if you divide by 359, the quotient will be the number of ale gallons; and if you divide by 2738, the quotient will be the number of hushels.

NOTE.—These divisors are found by dividing 231, 282 and 2150.4 by 7854.

EXAMPLE.—How many wine gallons is there in a cylinder, whose diameter of its base is 30 inches, and the length 50 inches.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 30 = \text{diameter.} \\
 \times 30 \\
 \hline
 900 \text{ square of the diameter.} \\
 \times 50 = \text{height.} \\
 294)45000(153.06 \text{ gallons.} \\
 \underline{294} \\
 1560 \\
 \underline{1470} \\
 900 \\
 \underline{882} \\
 1800 \\
 \underline{1764} \\
 36
 \end{array}$$

Art. LXIX.—To find the number of gallons or bushels contained in a body of the form of a frustum of a cone, (see fig. 47, pl. 34 of mensuration.)

RULE.—Multiply the top and bottom diameters together, and to the product add one third of the square of the difference of the same diameters: multiply this sum by the perpendicular height, and divide the product by 294 for wine gallons, by 359 for ale gallons, and by 2738 for bushels.

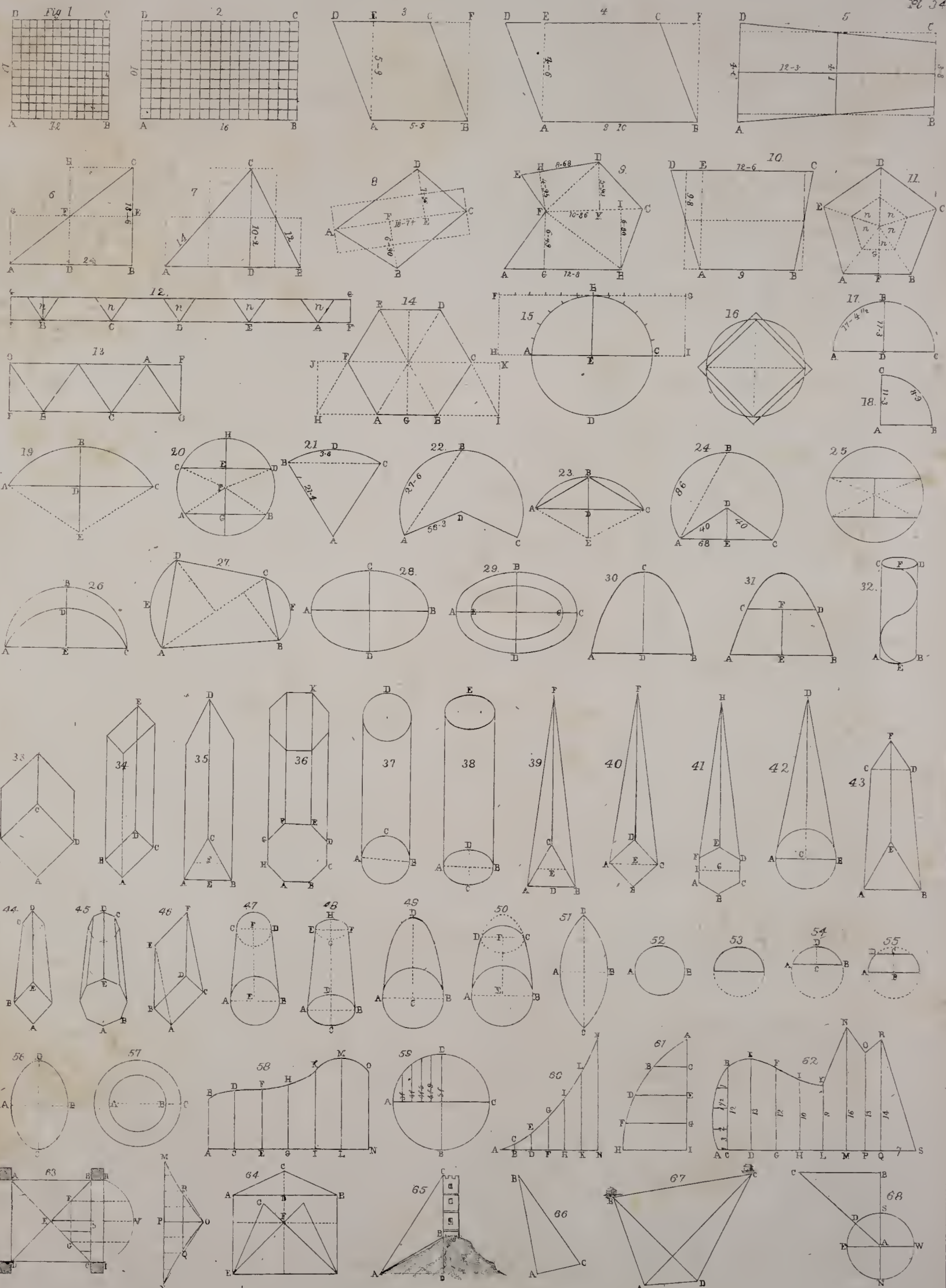
EXAMPLE.—How many wine gallons is there in a frustum of a cone whose greatest diameter is 70 inches, the lesser 61, and the height 72.

$ \begin{array}{r} 70 \\ 61 \\ \hline 9 \text{ difference.} \\ \times 9 \\ \hline 3)81(27 = \frac{1}{3} \text{ of square.} \\ \underline{6} \\ 21 \\ \underline{21} \\ 309384 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 61 = \text{the lesser diameter.} \\ \times 70 = \text{the greater diameter.} \\ \hline 4270 \\ \text{add } 27 \\ \hline 4297 \\ \times 72 = \text{height.} \\ \hline 8594 \\ 30079 \\ \hline 309384 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 294)309384(1052.32 = \text{galls.} \\ \underline{294} \\ 1538 \\ \underline{1470} \\ 684 \\ \underline{588} \\ 960 \\ \underline{882} \\ 780 \\ \underline{588} \\ 192 \end{array} $
---	--	---

NOTE.—It may be proper here to remark, that cisterns, frustums, &c. built either of wood, brick or stone, are generally made by the hogshead; and in gauging the above, we bring it first into wine gallons, then allow one hundred gallons for a hogshead.

Cisterns that are built of brick, are mostly built in the form of a cylinder, and a cylindroid, (see figs. 37, and 38, pl. 34 of mensuration.) and are arched over. And in gauging the above, if it be in the form of a cylinder, find the contents of the straight part by Art. 38, or by Art. 67; and if the arch be a semicircle find the contents by Art. 48; but if it be a segment of circle find the contents by Art. 49, and add them together which will give the whole content.

But if it be in the form of a cylindroid, find the contents of the straight part by Art. 39; and the contents of the arch by Art. 52, then add them together which will give the whole content; and when you have obtained the content in cubic inches, thence you may determine the contents in gallons, bushels, &c. (by the rules given at Art. 64,) by dividing the number of cubic inches by 231, the quotient will be the answer in wine gallons, or by 282, the quotient will be the answer in beer gallons, or by 2150.4, and the quotient will be the number of bushels, &c.



LOGARITHMS.

The learner, who for the first time becomes acquainted with the wonderful properties of LOGARITHMS, may be not a little surprised to find himself introduced to a system of numbers, so new in their nature, and which, surpassing all his former knowledge of figures, afford so many facilities for shortening the labor and lessening the difficulty of arithmetical calculations.

He will admire to find, that by help of these, the labor of hours, and, in some calculations even, the labor of days, may be reduced to as many minutes! The invention of Logarithms was justly regarded as "a favor from heaven;" because, in many departments of science, essential to the happiness of man, they have saved him ages of toil.

Although it does not come appropriately into the design of this volume to enter minutely into the history of their invention, nor the yet more difficult process by which they were originally constructed, yet a familiar explanation of their properties and uses, adapted to the apprehension and wants of the learner, is necessary, in order to his making a proper application of their great advantages in practice.

Logarithms, then, we may first observe, never stand for the numbers themselves, of which they are composed, but invariably for *other numbers*, of which they are only the representative exponents, or indices. Their great utility in arithmetical operations consists, chiefly, in this—that addition takes the place of multiplication, and subtraction, that of division. That is, to multiply numbers we have only to add their logarithms; to divide, we have only to subtract the logarithm of the divisor from that of the dividend; to raise a number to any power, we multiply its logarithm by the exponent of that power; and to extract the root of any number, we merely divide its logarithm by the number expressing the root to be found.

The constant number upon which the tables in common use are constructed, and which is called the base of the tables, is 10; and every conceivable number, large or small, integral, mixed, or decimal, is considered as some ascertained power or root of 10.

10^1	the first power of ten is	10,	whose exponent is	1.
10^2	the second power of ten is	100,	whose exponent is	2.
10^3	the third power of ten is	1,000,	whose exponent is	3.
10^4	the fourth power of ten is	10,000,	whose exponent is	4.
10^5	the fifth power of ten is	100,000,	whose exponent is	5.
10^6	the sixth power of ten is	1,000,000,	whose exponent is	6.

It may be remarked, that the first power of any number, is that number *once* repeated; or it is the number itself: The second power of any number, is the product of that number multiplied once by itself: The third power of a number, is the product of the number multiplied twice by itself: The fourth power of a number, is the product multiplied three times by itself, &c. The index denoting the power, is called, in common arithmetic the *exponent* of that power; and is, in other words, the *logarithm* of the power.

LOGARITHMS, then, are the EXPONENTS of a series of powers and roots.

In the above series, the *logarithms* indicate how many *cyphers* belong to their corresponding numbers. Thus, the logarithm 1 stands for 10, or 1 and one cypher; the logarithm 2 stands for 100, or 1 and two cyphers; the logarithm 3, for 1000, or 1 and three cyphers, &c. Now if we multiply 10,000 by 100, the product will be 1,000,000, whose logarithm is 6: but to obtain this, we need only add the logarithms 2 and 4, which stand opposite the numbers to be multiplied. On the contrary, if we divide 1,000,000 by 100, the quotient will be 10,000, whose logarithm is 4: but to obtain this, we need only subtract 2, the logarithm of the divisor, from 6, the logarithm of the dividend.

Again, the square of 1000, that is, the product of 1000 multiplied by itself, is 1,000,000, whose logarithm is 6: but to obtain the square of 1000, we need only double its logarithm 3. On the other hand, the cube root of 1,000,000 is 100, whose logarithm is 2; but this is obtained by dividing 6, the logarithm of the given number, by 3, the index of the root. Hence it is manifest, that the protracted labor of multiplying or dividing one large number by another, the tedious evolution of roots, and the various mistakes incident to long operations, may be almost entirely obviated by the use of logarithms.

As the logarithm of 1 is always 0, and that of 10 is but 1, the logarithms of all numbers *below* 10, will be decimals: and as the logarithms in the common system increase regularly by 1, according to the integral powers of 10, it follows that the logarithms of all numbers between 10 and 100, will be more than 1, but less than 2—that is, they will be 1 and a decimal: the logarithms of all numbers between 100 and 1000, will be between 2 and 3—that is, they will be two and a decimal: and the logarithms of all numbers between 1000 and 10,000, will be between 3 and 4—that is, 3 and a decimal.

A logarithm generally consists of two parts; a *whole number*, and a *decimal*. This whole number or integer is called the *characteristic*, or *index*, of the logarithm, and is always *one less* than the number of *integral figures* in the natural number whose logarithm is sought. As the index of the logarithm is *omitted* in the tables, it is important to recollect the principle, or rule, by which it is to be supplied, whenever it is wanted in calculation. Thus, the logarithm of 8 is 0.903090. Here, the number (8) consists of but one figure, and the index of its logarithm, being *one less*, must be 0. Again, the logarithm of 16 is 1.204120. Here, the given number (16) consists of two figures, and the index of its logarithm, being *one less*, must be 1.—Again, the logarithm of 640 is 2.806180. Here, the given number (640) consists of 3 figures, and the index of its logarithm, being *one less*,

must be 2, &c. The rule holds universally true, that *the index of a logarithm is always one less, than the number of integral figures in the natural number whose logarithm is sought.*

The same rule holds in *mixed* numbers. The logarithm of 6.40 is 0.80618, the same as for 640 (see the last example) differing only in the index. Here, the integral part (6) of the given number, consists of but one figure, and the index of its logarithm, being *one less*, must be 0. And, generally—having obtained the logarithm of any number, large or small, we have only to change the index, agreeably to the above rule, in order to obtain the logarithm of every other number, consisting of the *same significant figures*, whether they be integral, fractional, or mixed. Thus:—

The logarithm of 7596	is 3.880585
759.6	2.880585
75.96	1.880585
7.596	0.880585
.7596	— 1.880585
.07596	— 2.880585
.007596	— 3.880585

When the natural number is less than 1, the index of its logarithm becomes less than 0, or *negative*; and is indicated by placing the sign — just before or above it. Suppose it were required to affix the proper index to the logarithm of .000007596. Here, the number of cyphers on the left *including the decimal point*, is 6, which, being fitted with the negative sign —, becomes the proper index of the logarithm. And universally. *The negative index is always equal to the number of cyphers on the left, including the decimal point.*

Before any one can avail himself of the great advantages of logarithms in expediting the operations of Arithmetic and Trigonometry, he must become so familiar with the tables, that he can readily find the logarithm of any number; and, on the other hand, the number to which any logarithm belongs.

DIRECTIONS FOR TAKING LOGARITHMS AND THEIR NUMBERS FROM THE TABLE.

In the common tables, the *Indices* to the logarithms of the first 100 numbers are inserted. But, for all other numbers, the *decimal part* only of the logarithms is given; while the index is left to be supplied, according to the principles already laid down.

PROBLEM I.

To find the Logarithm of any number between 1 and 100:

RULE.—Look for the proposed number on the left; and against it, in the next column, will be the logarithm, with its index.

EXAMPLE. The logarithm of 50 is 1.698970. The logarithm of 89 is 1.949390.

PROBLEM II.

To find the Logarithm of any number between 1 and 1000: or of any number consisting of not more than three significant figures, with cyphers annexed.

RULE.—Find the given number in the left hand column of the table, and directly opposite, in the next column, is the decimal part of its logarithm, to which apply the index as already taught.

EXAMPLE. The logarithm of 140 is 2.146128. The logarithm of 781 is 2.892651 of 358 2.553883. of 974 2.988559

The decimal part only of these logarithms are found in the table; the index 2, was affixed to each, because the given numbers consisted, each of *three integral* figures. If there had been cyphers annexed to the significant figures of the given numbers, as 14000, 358000, &c. their logarithms would have been precisely the same, with the exception of the *index* only; and, consequently, would be found in the same place in the table. Thus—

The log. of 1400 is 3.146128. The log. of 781000 is 5.892651. of 35800 4.553883. of 9740000 6.988559.

Here the *decimal part* of the logarithm is the same as before; while the index has been increased as *many units*, as *there are cyphers annexed to the given numbers*. This rule will hold good in all similar cases.

PROBLEM III.

To find the Logarithm of any number consisting of four figures, either with, or without, cyphers annexed.

RULE. Look for the three first figures, on the left hand, and for the fourth figure, at the *top* of one of the columns; the logarithm will be found opposite the three first figures, and in the column which, at the head, is marked with the fourth figure.

By reference to the table, it will be seen, that each page contains 10 columns of logarithms, which are severally numbered from 0 to 9. The first column, alone, contains six figures; while every other column has only four figures: but it is to be always remembered that *the two first figures, of the left hand column, are common to each of the other columns*, and were omitted only to avoid re-

petition. These two initial figures, therefore, are to be prefixed to each of the other four, since every logarithm, in our table, consists of six figures, besides the index.

EXAMPLE. The log. of 3657 is 3.563125 The log. of 3657 is 3.826704.
of 5696 3.755570 8512 3.930032.

In the last example, as it will frequently happen, the *two initial figures* (93) of the logarithm, are not found, in the same line, with the given number (851,) but in the next below it:—And, universally, whenever the third figure of the logarithm changes, from 9 to 10, the cypher only is retained in the column, while the 1 is carried down to the next lower initial, on the left. To guard against a mistake here, *points* have been substituted in place of cyphers; and whenever these points are found, the cyphers are to be reinstated, and the two initials taken from the line below.

PROBLEM IV.

To find the Logarithm of a number consisting of five or six figures.

RULE.—Find the logarithm of the *first four figures* of the given number, as taught in the last problem. Take the remaining figures and multiply them into the number standing opposite, in the outside column, headed D; from the right of the product, reject as many figures as you multiplied by, and add what is left to the logarithm previously found. This sum, being fitted with a proper index, will be the logarithm required.

EXAMPLE. Required the logarithm of 45263. Thus—

The logarithm of 45260 is 4.655715
The difference D is 96, which being multiplied by 3, gives 28.8
Logarithm of 45263 required. 4.655743

EXAMPLE 2. Required the logarithm of 758936. Thus—

The logarithm of 758900 is 5.880185
The difference D is 57, which being multiplied by 36, gives 20.52
Logarithm of 758936 required. 5.880205

This process of finding the logarithms of large numbers supposes that they increase in the same ratio as their numbers, which is not strictly true, though sufficiently near the truth for general practice. It may be remarked, however, that these ratios approach that of equality, the larger the numbers, and the less they differ from each other.

The column marked D, contains the average mean differences of the ten logarithms against which they stand, and, consequently, do not always correspond exactly to each of the differences, taken separately; wherefore, when great accuracy is required, it may be necessary, particularly in the first part of the table, to work by

PROBLEM V.

To find the logarithm of a number consisting of six or seven figures.

RULE.—Find the logarithm of the first four figures, as before, and take the difference between this logarithm and the next greater in the table; multiply this difference by the remaining figures of the given number; reject, from the right of the product, as many figures as you multiplied by, and add what is left to the logarithm before found; this sum being fitted with a proper index; will be the logarithm required.

EXAMPLE. Required the Logarithm of 4526375.

To the first four figures, add as many cyphers as there are other figures in the proposed number, find the logarithm, which subtract from the next greater.

Thus—
The next greater number is 4527000 and its log. is 6.655810
given number 4526000 " 6.655715
diff. of number. 1000 diff. of logs. 95
multiply by the other figures of the given number 375
gives the proportional part to be added 35.625
to the log. of the first part 6.655715
Gives the log. of 4526375, as required. 6.655750

PROBLEM VI.

To find the Logarithm of a Fraction.

RULE.—Subtract the logarithm of the denominator from that of the numerator; or, reduce the fraction to a decimal, and take out the logarithm as for a whole number, fitting it with a proper index.

EXAMPLE. Required the logarithms of $\frac{3}{4}$ or .75.

The log of the numerator (3) is 0.477121
of the denominator (4) is 0.602060
Log. of $\frac{3}{4}$ or .75. Answer. -1.875061

PROBLEM VII.

To find the Natural Number, belonging to any Logarithm.

RULE 1.—If the logarithm be found within the limits of the table; that is, if its index do not exceed 3; then neglecting the index, look down in the column of logarithms, under 0, for the two or three first figures of your given logarithm, and if you exactly find all the figures of the given logarithm in that column, you will have the corresponding number in the adjoining column, on the left.

RULE 2.—If the logarithm be not found, exactly, in the column under 0, look through the other columns, on the right, till you find it exactly, or very nearly, and in the column of numbers directly against it, you will have the first three figures of the number sought, to which join the figure at the top of the column in which the logarithm was found, and you will have the number required.

NOTE.—When the number is found, you must point off decimals from it, or annex cyphers to it, if necessary, to make it correspond with the *index* of your logarithm, as already taught.

EXAMPLES.

Logarithms.	Numbers.
3.880585	7596
2.402069	252.4
1.514946	32.73
0.629919	4.265
1.811508	.6479
2.907630	.08085
3.962464	.009172

When great accuracy is required, and the given logarithm is not exactly, or very nearly, found in the table, it will be necessary to reverse the rule, under problem 4, or 5. Thus—

RULE 3.—From the given logarithm, subtract the next less, in the table; annex to the difference as many cyphers, as you wish the number of figures in the answer to exceed four. Then divide this difference by the common difference in the side column D, and annex the quotient to the natural number belonging to the less logarithm, and you will have the number required.

EXAMPLE 1. Required the natural number, belonging to the logarithm

3.441049
next less log. 3.440909 corresponding number 2760
divide by com. D= 157)14000(quotes .89
Number required. 2760.89

EXAMPLE 2. Required the number corresponding to the logarithm —3.441049

The operation in this example, is the same as in the first. Having found the corresponding number, as before, prefix the number of cyphers indicated by the negative index, thus, 0.00276089.

PROBLEM VIII.

DIRECTIONS FOR TAKING THE LOGARITHMIC SINES, TANGENTS, AND SECANTS, FROM THE TABLE.

RULE 1.—If the given angle is less than 45°, look for the degrees at the top of the table, and the minutes on the left; then, opposite to the minutes, and under the word *sine*, at the head of the column, will be found the sine; under the word *tangent*, will be found the tangent, and under the word *secant*, will be found the secant of the angle required. Thus:—

Sine of 12° 35' is 9.333176	Cotangent of 9° 55' is 10.757390
Cosine of 21° 40' is 9.968179	Secant of 11° 30' is 10.008807
Tangent of 38° 5' is 9.894111	Cosecant of 39° 5' is 10.200349

The first figure is the index, and the other figures are the decimal part of the logarithm.

2.—If the given angle is between 45 and 90°, look for the degrees at the bottom of the table, and the minutes on the right; then, opposite to the minutes, and over the word *sine* at the foot of the column, will be found the sine; over the word *tangent*, will be found the tangent; and over the word *secant*, will be found the tabular secant &c. of the angle sought. Thus:—

Sine of 81° 20' is 9.995013	Cosine of 39° 15' is 8.116926
Tangent of 73° 25' is 10.526081	Cotangent of 54° 5' is 9.359932
Secant of 64° 45' is 10.386455	Cosecant of 45° 55' is 10.143677

3.—If the given angle is between 90 and 180 degrees; subtract it from 180 degrees, and the tabular sine, tangent, or secant, of the remainder, will be the tabular sine, tangent, or secant, of the required angle. Thus:—

Sine of 99° is the sine of 81°	Cosine of 111° 55' = Cosine 68° 5'
Tang. of 102° is the tang. of 78°	Cotang. of 127° 8' = Cotang. 52° 52'
Sec. of 158° 10' = sec. of 21° 50'	Cosec. of 131° 40' = Cosec. 48° 20'

Having thus found the *supplement* of the angle, when it is obtuse, that is, when it exceeds 90 degrees, the tabular sine, tangent, or secant, is found by rule 1st or 2d.

It must be observed, that the table of sines, tangents, and secants, in this work, are calculated only to every five minutes.

If, however, greater accuracy is required, work as follows:

4.—Find the difference between the tabular sine, tangent, or secant, of the angle which is next *less*, and of that which is next *greater*, than the given one; multiply this difference by double the odd minutes, and add the product, rejecting the last figure of it, to the tabular sine, tangent, or secant, of the lesser angle. Thus:

EXAMPLE. Required the Logarithmic sine of 53° 8'

Next greater, in the table, is 53 10 =	9.903298
Next less, do. 53 5	9.902824

Tabular difference for 5	474
Mult. by twice the odd min. 3X=	6

Add to the lesser angle 53 5	284.4
Gives log. sine of 53 8 =	9.903108

PROBLEM IX.

To find the degrees and minutes corresponding to any given tabular sine, tangent, or secant within the compass of the table.

RULE 1.—Look in the column of the same name, for the sine, tangent, or secant, which is *nearest* to the given one; and if the title be at the head of the column, take the degrees at the top of the table, and the minutes on the left; but if the title be at the foot of the column, take the degrees at the bottom, and the minutes on the right.

EXAMPLE. Find the number of degrees and minutes corresponding to the logarithmic sine 9.673971.

The nearest sine in the tables is 9.673977. The title of sine is at the head of the column in which the numbers are found. The degrees at the top of the page

are 28, and the minutes on the left are 10. The angle required, is, therefore, $28^{\circ} 10'$.

2.—When the given logarithmic sine, tangent, or secant, is not found exactly, or very nearly, in the table.

Find the difference between the next less and the next greater tabular sine, tangent, or secant, as in the last example; multiply this difference by five, and divide the product by the difference between the given logarithm and the next less, and add the quotient to the degrees and minutes belonging to the less. Thus:

EXAMPLE. Required the degrees and minutes corresponding to the logarithmic sine 9.903108.

Given log.	9.903108	Next greater log.	9.903298
Next less.	9.902824 = $53^{\circ} 5'$	Next less	9.902824

284	474
5	

Divide by 474)1420(3 minutes, added to the less
Gives $53^{\circ}.8'$

MULTIPLICATION BY LOGARITHMS.

RULE.—Take from the table the logarithms of all the numbers to be multiplied, add them together, and their sum will be the logarithm of the product. Then, by means of the table, take out the natural number, corresponding to this sum, for the product sought.

Observe, that whatever is to be carried from the decimal part of the logarithm, is always positive, and must be added to the positive, or subtracted from the negative index or indices.

EXAMPLES.

Numbers.	Logarithms.	Numbers.	Logarithms.
1. Mult. 326	2.513218	2. Mult. 8.25	0.916454
by 85	1.929419	by 112	2.049218
Prod. 27710	4.442637	Prod. 924.00	2.965672

3. Multiply the following numbers together: 3.902, 597.16, and .0314728.

Numbers.	Logarithms.
3.902	0.591287
597.160	2.776091
.0314728	2.497935

Prod. 73.3333 1.865313

Here, the 2 cancels the 2, and the 1 to carry, from the decimal part of the logarithms is set down.

4. Multiply 3.586, and 2 1046, and 0.8372, and 0.0294 all together.

Numbers.	Logarithms.
3.586	0.554610
2.1046	0.323170
0.8372	1.922329
0.0294	2.468347

Product 0.105762 1.268956

Here the 2 to carry cancels the 2, and there remains the 1 to set down, for the index of the product.

In practice, however, it is usual to make all the indices positive. This is done by adding 10 to each negative index; observing, to reject an equal number from the final result.

Thus, for negative —1, we may put down positive 9.
for negative —2, we may put down positive 8.
for negative —3, we may put down positive 7. &c.

Because, minus 1, plus 10, equals 9.
minus 2, plus 10, equals 8.
minus 3, plus 10, equals 7. &c.

5. Repeating the 3d example we have

Numbers.	Logarithms.	Logarithms.
3.902	0.591287 =	0.591287
597.160	2.776091 =	2.776091
.0314728	2.497935 or	8.497935

Prod. 73.3333 1.865313 1.865313

Here the sum of the indices is 11: from which reject 10, and the result is the same as before.

DIVISION BY LOGARITHMS.

RULE.—From the Logarithm of the Dividend, subtract the logarithm of the divisor; the number answering to the remainder will be the quotient required. The decimal part of the logarithm may be subtracted as in common arithmetic. But observe, always to change the index of the divisor, or suppose it to be changed from positive to negative, or from negative to positive; then add the indices of the Dividend and Divisor together where their signs are alike, but subtract the less from the larger, if unlike, and prefix to the difference the sign of the greater index.

The sum, or difference, thus found, will be the index to the logarithm of the quotient.

Observe also, that where 1 is borrowed, in the left hand place of the decimal part of the logarithm, add it to the index of the divisor when that index is positive, but subtract it, from the index if it is negative, and then proceed, as above stated.

EXAMPLES.

Numbers.	Logarithms.	Numbers.	Logarithms.
1. Divide 24163	4.383151	2. Divide 37.149	1.569947
by 4567	3.659631	by 523.760	2.719132
Quot. 5.2908	0.723520	Quot. .070927	2.850815

Here, in the 2d example, the 1 which is borrowed for the 7, being added to the index 2, because it is positive, makes it 3. But, before it is subtracted, the sign is changed from positive 3, to negative —3, from which, take the 1 above it and there remains —2 for the index of the quotient.

3. Divide .06314	—2.800305	or	8.800305
by .007243	—3.859799	or	7.859799
8.7198	0.940506		0.940506

Here, 1 carried from the decimal, to the —3, reduces it to —2, which, taken from the other —2, leaves 0 for the index of the quotient. To the learner, who is unacquainted with algebra, much of the perplexity arising from the employment of the negative indices, may be avoided, by making them all positive.

INVOLUTION BY LOGARITHMS.

A number is involved, by multiplying it one, or more times, into itself. But a number is multiplied by itself, by adding its logarithm to itself; that is, a number is raised to the second power, by multiplying its logarithm by 2. In like manner a number is raised to the third power by multiplying its logarithm by 3, and so on. Wherefore, we have this general

RULE.—Multiply the logarithm of the number to be involved, by the index of the power. The number, corresponding to this product, will be the power required.

EXAMPLE 1. What is the square of 291?

Number 291, its logarithm is 2.463893
Index of the power 2

Power required 84681 4.927786

2. Required the cube of 3.07146

Number 3.07146 logarithm 0.487345
Index of the power 3

Power required 28.9753 1.462035

3. Required the 10th power of 2.

Number 2 logarithm 0.301030
Index of the power 10

Power required 1024 3.010300

EVOLUTION BY LOGARITHMS.

Evolution is the opposite of Involution. Therefore to extract the roots of numbers, by Logarithms, we have this

RULE.—Divide the Logarithm of the given number, by the number expressing the root to be found.

NOTE.—When the index of the logarithm is negative, and does not exactly contain the divisor, without some remainder, increase the index by such a number as will make it exactly divisible, and carry the units thus borrowed, as so many tens, to the first figure of the decimal, and then divide as in whole numbers.

EXAMPLE. Required the square root of 84681, and the cube root of 19683000.

Numbers.	Logarithms.	Numbers.	Logarithms.
1. Power 84681	2)4.927786	2. Power 19683000	3)7.294091
Root 291	2.463893	Root 270	2.431364
Numbers.	Logarithms.	Numbers.	Logarithms.
3. Power 0.0932	2)—2.969416	4. Power 0.00048	3)—4.681241
Root 0.30496	—1.484708	Root 0.078297	—2.893747

Here, in the 3d example, the divisor 2 is contained exactly once, in the negative index —2; the index of the quotient is therefore —1. But in the 4th example, the divisor 3 not being exactly contained in —4, the latter is augmented by 2 to make up 6, in which the divisor is contained just twice. The 2 thus borrowed, being carried to the decimal figure 6, makes 26, which divide by 3 &c.

But when to avoid the perplexity of negative signs, the index of the logarithm is made positive, it will be needful to add as many tens to the negative index as there are units in the number expressing the root to be found.

5. What is the 5th root of 0.008926?

Power 0.008926 5)—3.950657 or 5)47.950657
0.38916 —1.590131 9.590131

A power of a root, that is, a fractional root of any given number may be found by the following

RULE.—Multiply the logarithm of the given number by the index of the power, and then divide the product by the number, expressing the root. In other words, multiply the logarithm by the numerator, and divide by the denominator.

EXAMPLE. What is the $(654)^{\frac{2}{3}}$ that is, the 8th power of the 9th root of 654.

Given number 654 log. 2.815578
Multiply by 8

Divide by 9)22.524624

Power required 318-23 2.502936

COMPOUND INTEREST BY LOGARITHMS.

RULE.—Find the amount of 1 dollar for 1 year; multiply its logarithm by the number of years; and to the product, add the logarithm of the principal. The sum will be the logarithm of the amount for the given time.

From the amount subtract the principal, and the remainder will be the interest.

EXAMPLE. The last example in Dabolls arithmetic, under Compound Interest, is as follows:—"What will fifty dollars amount to, in 20 years, at 6 per cent?"

This question, wrought out in the most expeditious manner in common arithmetic, would take the student scarcely less than 3 hours, and the final result would be, if done correctly, \$160.3567756106422365941496492288974572748800. But by logarithms this sum may be done in as many minutes, and the correct answer, in dollars and cents, obtained with a very few figures. Thus—

Amount of 1 dollar for 1 year is 1.06	logarithm	0.0253059
Multiply by the time		20
		0.5061180
Add log. of principal 50		1.6989700

Amount as above = \$160.35,7

From the foregoing general principles of the nature and application of logarithms, are derived an infinite number of specific rules, adapted to particular cases; some of which will be more fully shown under the article Trigonometry. We shall in this place, therefore, give only one more illustration of the great utility of logarithms in facilitating some of the most laborious operations in arithmetic, viz:

Between two numbers given, to find any number of mean proportionals required.

RULE 1.—From the logarithm of the greater number subtract the logarithm of the less, and divide the remainder by the number of means, increased by 1.

2.—Add the quotient to the logarithm of the less number, and the sum will be the logarithm of the 1st mean proportional.

3.—To the logarithm last found, add the said quotient, and the sum will be the sum of the 2d mean proportional; and thus proceed always adding the same quotient to the logarithm of the last proportional found, as far as the question requires.

EXAMPLE. Required to find between 16 and 64, five mean proportionals.

Log. of 64	1.806180
of 16	1.204120
Divide by 5 means, +1	=6) 0.602060
Com. ratio, 1.26 nearly	0.100343½
Add log of 19	1.204120
1st proportional 20.153=	1.304463½
To which add said quotient	0.100343½
2nd proportional 25.398	= 1.404806½
Add quotient	0.100343½
3d proportional 32	= 1.505150
Add quotient	0.100343½
4th proportional 40.317	= 1.605493½
Add quotient	0.100343½
5th proportional 50.796	= 1.705836½

TRIGONOMETRY.

TRIGONOMETRY is that branch of the general science of Geometry which treats of the properties and relations of certain straight lines drawn in and about a circle, and also teaches to compute the sides and angles of triangles. It is divided into two parts, plane, and spherical.

Plane Trigonometry treats only of Rectilinear Triangles; while Spherical Trigonometry treats of triangles, formed by the intersections of three great circles upon the surface of a sphere.

Scarcely any department of mathematics is more important, or more extensive in its application to the useful purposes and business of life. By Trigonometry the builder determines the length of braces, rafters, beams, the projection of roofs, and whatever appertains to the architecture of bridges or arches, and to the proper delineation of plans and drawings. There is no branch of science so essential to the practical architect, as that of trigonometry. The science of architecture is, indeed, the science of trigonometry reduced to examples. Without the latter, the former would have remained, at best, but as an art without rules, exactness, or order.

The terms of this science, such as Sines, Tangents, Secants, &c., have already been explained, among the definitions of Geometry. It remains now to show their application, and the manner of computing them. Each of these terms, under different circumstances, is but another name for the perpendicular, the base, and the hypotenuse of a triangle. In one triangle for instance, the perpendicular becomes the Sine, and in another perfectly similar to the former, it is as often the Tangent, of an angle. The same thing is true of the base, also. It becomes first of all, necessary, therefore, to know, under what circumstances, the respective sides of a triangle become sines, tangents, and secants, or cosines, cotangents and cosecants.

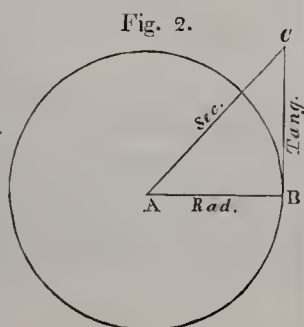
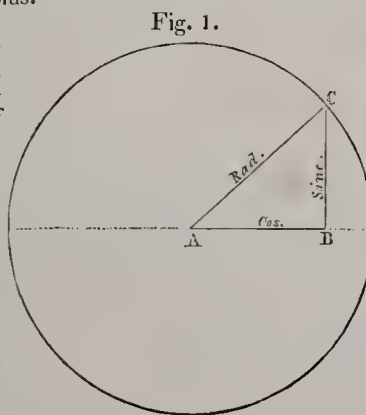
This depends on which side of the triangle the circle is described: for if any side whatever be made radius, each of the other sides will be the sine, tangent or secant, of the arc described by this radius.

CASE 1.—In every right angled triangle, if the Hypotenuse be made radius, one of the sides will be a sine of its opposite angle, and the other side a cosine of the same angle. Thus:

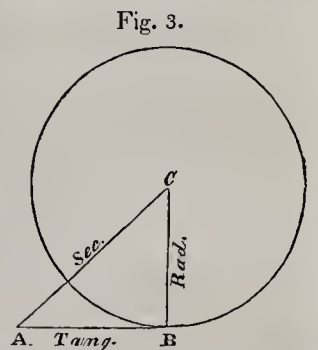
The triangle ABC being constructed and a circle described around the centre A, with the radius AC, then the perpendicular BC will be the sine, and the base AB the cosine of the angle at A. But as the sine of either of the acute angles of a right angled triangle is the cosine of the other, and the contrary; therefore the perpendicular BC, being the sine of the angle at A, is also cosine of the angle at C.

CASE 2.—If either the base or perpendicular be made radius, the other will be a tangent of its opposite angle, and the Hypotenuse will be a secant of the same angle; that is, of the angle between the secant and the radius. Thus:

Let an arc or circle, be described around A, with the base AB, as radius, then the perpendicular BC will be the tangent, and the hypotenuse AC the secant of the angle at A. And because the side which is the sine, tangent or secant, of one of the acute angles of a right angled triangle, is the cosine, cotangent, or cosecant of the other angle, therefore, the perpendicular BC, being tangent of the angle at A, is also cotangent of the angle at C. And the hypotenuse AC, being secant of the angle at A, is also, cosecant of the angle at C.



CASE 3.—If the perpendicular BC be made radius, with the centre at C, then the base AB will be the tangent, and the hypotenuse AC (as before) the secant of the angle at C. And, because every side of a right angled triangle, which is the sine, tangent, or secant, of one of the acute angles, is the cosine, cotangent, or cosecant, of the other acute angle, therefore, the base AB being tangent of the angle at C, is also cotangent of the angle at A. And the hypotenuse AC, being secant of the angle at C, is also cosecant of the angle at A.



The solution of all the cases in right angled trigonometry, depends upon the principle that the radius of one circle, is to the radius of any other, as the sine tangent or secant, in one, is to the sine, tangent, or secant, of the same number of degrees, in the other. It is also plain, that if the side of any triangle, which is made radius should remain unchanged, the other two sides would vary according to the size of the angle; that is, they would be longer or shorter according as they subtended a greater or less number of degrees. Upon this principle the table of sines, tangents, or secants, was computed, to radius 1, for every 5' of a degree.

In every triangle, there are six parts, three sides, and three angles. Of these parts three must be given, including a side, to enable us to find the the rest. To find a side, we begin the statement of the problem with an angle. To find an angle, we must begin with a side, as in the following rules.

1. To find a Side.—Call any one of the sides of a triangle radius, and write upon it the word radius; observe whether the other sides become sine, tangent, or secants, and write these words on them, or suppose them to be written, as in some one of the three last figures. Consider the word thus written upon each side, as the tabular name, of that side. Then institute the following proportion:

As the tabular name* of the given side,
Is to the length of the side,
As is the tabular name* of the required side,
To the length of the required side,

2. To find an Angle.—One of the given sides must be made radius, then institute the following proportion:

As the length of the given side made radius,
Is to its tabular name*, that is, radius;
So is the length of the other given side,
To its tabular name*.

Having thus arranged the terms of the proportion, look for the corresponding logarithms, in the logarithms of numbers, for the length of the sides; and in the table of sines, tangents and secants, for the logarithmic sine, tangent, or secant. Then proceed by this general

RULE.—ADD TOGETHER THE LOGARITHMS OF THE SECOND AND THIRD TERMS, AND FROM THEIR SUM, SUBTRACT THE LOGARITHM OF THE FIRST TERM. THE REMAINDER WILL BE THE LOGARITHM OF THE ANSWER.

NOTE.—From the property of a plane triangle, that the three angles are together equal to two right angles, or 180 degrees, the following useful corollaries, arise.

1. When two angles of a triangle are given, the third is also said to be given; for it is the supplement of the other two, and may be found by subtracting their sum from 180 degrees.

2. When one angle of a triangle is given, the sum of the other two may be found, by subtracting the given angles from the two right angles, or 180 degrees.

3. If one angle of a triangle be right, the other two are acute, and together make another right angle; and if one of the acute angles be given, the other is also given, being the complement of the other given one, or what it wants of 90 degrees.

4. The sine or tangent of any angle is to the side opposite to it, as the sine, or tangent, of any other angle is to its opposite side, and the contrary.

* Which will be either Sine, Tangent, or Secant, &c.

PROBLEM I.

GIVEN THE ANGLES AND THE HYPOTHENUSE OF A RIGHT ANGLED TRIANGLE, TO FIND THE BASE AND PERPENDICULAR.

EXAMPLE 1. In the triangle ABC, right angled at B, suppose the angle at A=50 degrees 30 minutes, and the hypotenuse, AC=125 feet, or yards; required the sides AB and BC.

Here, the hypotenuse being the given side must be made radius; and BC will then become the sine of the angle at A, and AB the cosine of the same angle, see fig. 1.

To find the perp. BC		To find the base AB	
As rad. or sine of 90°	10.000000	As radius, sine of 90°	10.000000
Is to hypotenuse 125	3.096910	Is to hyp. AC 125	2.096910
So is the sine of L A 50° 30'	9.927406	So is Cos. of L A 50° 30'	9.803511
	10.984316		11.900421
(Subtract 1st term)	10.000000	(Subtract 1st term)	10.000000

To perp. BC 96.4 To base AB 79.51
NOTE.—Where the first term is radius, it may be subtracted from the sum of the other two, by merely rejecting 10 in the index, without the trouble of setting it down a second time.

To find the angle at C, we have only to subtract the angle at A from 90°. Thus 90°—50° 30'=39° 30' which is the angle at C.

2. Making the base radius, the perpendicular BC becomes the tangent of the angle A, and AC becomes the secant of A. see fig. 2. Thence.

To find BC		To find AB	
As secant of it 50° 30' =	10.196489	As secant of A 50° 30' =	10.196489
Is to hyp. AC 125	2.096910	Is to hyp. AC 125	2.096910
So is tangent of A 50° 30'	10.083896	So is radius 90°	10.000000
	12.180806		12.096910
(Subtract 1st term)	10.196489	(Subtract 1st term.)	10.196489

To perp. BC 96.45 To base AB 79.51

3. Making the Perpendicular Radius, the base AB will be the tangent of the angle at C, or cotangent of A; and the hypotenuse AC, will be the secant of C, or the cosecant of A. See fig. 3. Hence.

To find BC		To find AB	
As cosecant A 50° 30' =	10.112594	As cosecant of A 50° 30' =	10.112594
Is to hyp. AC 125	2.096910	Is to hyp. AC 125	2.096910
So is radius 90°	10.000000	So is cotang. of A 50° 30'	9.916104
	12.096910		12.013014
(Subtract 1st term)	10.112594	(Subtract 1st term)	10.112594

To perp. BC 96.45 To base AB 79.51

PROBLEM II.

BY GUNTER'S SCALE.

1st. Extend the compasses, from 36° 52' the complement of A to 90, on the line of sines; that extent will reach from 288 to 48°= the hypotenuse AC.

2d. Extend the compasses from 36° 52' to 53° 8, on the line of sines; that extent will reach from 288 to BC 384 on the line of numbers.

In working the several cases of right angled trigonometry by Gunter's scale, we shall always suppose the hypotenuse radius, (where it can be done,) because it is the most simple of the three.

GIVEN THE ANGLES AND THE BASE, TO FIND THE HYPOTHENUSE AND THE PERPENDICULAR.

In the triangle ABC, right angled at B, given the angle at A, 53° 8', and the base AB=288, to find the hypotenuse AC, and the perpendicular BC.

Fig. 4.

1. Making the hypotenuse radius, the perpendicular BC, will be the sine of the angle at A, and the base AB the cosine. (See fig. 1.) Hence.

To find AC.		To find BC.	
As cosine A 53° 8' =	9.778119	As cos. A 53° 8' =	9.778119
Is to base AB 288	2.459392	Is to base AB 288	2.459392
So is radius 90°	10.000000	So is sine A 53° 8'	9.903108
	12.459392		12.362500
(Subtract 1st. term)	9.778119	(Sub. 1st. term)	9.778119

To hyp. AC 480 To perp. BC 384

2. Making the base radius, the perpendicular BC will be the tangent of the

angle at A, and the hypotenuse will be secant of the same angle. See fig. 2. Hence.

To find AC		To find BC	
As radius 90° =	10.000000	As radius 90° =	10.000000
Is to the base AB 288	2.459392	Is to the base AB 288	2.454392
So is secant of A 53° 8'	10.221881	So is tang. of A 53° 8'	10.124990
	12.681273		12.584382
To hyp. AC 480		To perp. BC 384	

3. Making the perpendicular radius, the base AB will be the tangent of C, or the cotangent of A; and the hypotenuse AC will be the secant of C, or cosecant of A. See fig. 3. Hence.

To find AC.		To find BC.	
As cotangent A 53° 8' =	9.875010	As cotangent A 53° 8' =	9.875010
Is to the base AB 288	2.459392	Is to the base AB 288	2.459392
So is cosecant A 53° 8'	10.096892	So is radius 90°	10.000000
	12.556284		12.459392
(Subtract 1st term)	9.875010	(Subtract 1st term)	9.875010

To hyp. AC 480 To hyp. AC 384.

BY GUNTER'S SCALE.

1. Extend the compasses from 90° to 50° 30' on the line of sines, and then that extent will reach from 125 to 96.45=BC on the line of numbers.

2. Extend the compasses from 90° to 39° 30' the complement or cosine of the angle A, and that extent will reach from the hypotenuse AC=125, to the base AB=79.51, on the line of numbers.

PROBLEM III.

GIVEN THE ANGLES AND THE PERPENDICULAR TO FIND THE HYPOTHENUSE AND THE BASE.

Fig. 5.

EXAMPLE 1. In the triangle ABC, right angled at B, let the angle at C be 35° 30', and the perpendicular BC 295 feet; required the base AB and the hypotenuse AC.

1. Making the hypotenuse radius, the perpendicular BC becomes the sine of A, and the base AB the cosine. See fig. 1. Hence.

To find AB		To find AC.	
As cosine of C 35° 30' =	9.910686	As cosine of C 35° 30' =	9.910686
Is to perp. BC 295	2.469822	Is to perp. BC 295	2.469822
So is sine C 35° 30'	9.763954	So is rad. 90	10.000000
	12.233776		12.469822
(Sub. 1st. term)	9.910686	(Sub. 1st. term)	9.910686

To base AB 210.4 To hyp. AC 362.3

NOTE.—It is customary to subtract the 1st term from the sum of the other two, where it stands, without writing it down the second time, as, for the sake of plainness, we have done in the foregoing examples.

2. Making the base radius, BC will be the tangent of A, and AC the secant thereof. See fig. 2. Hence.

To find AB.		To find AC.	
As cotang. of C 35° 30' =	10.146732	As cotangent C 35° 30' =	10.146732
Is to perp. BC 295	2.469822	Is to perp. BC 295	2.469822
So is radius 90	10.000000	So is cosecant C 35° 30'	10.236046
	12.469822		12.705868
To base AB 210.4	2.323090	To hyp. AC 362.3	2.559136

3. Making the perpendicular radius, the base will be the tangent of C, or the cotangent of A; and the hypotenuse will be the secant of C, or cosecant of A. See fig. 3. Hence.

To find AB.		To find AC	
As radius or sine 90° =	10.000000	As rad. or sine 90° =	10.000000
Is to perp. BC 295	2.469822	Is to perp. BC 295	2.469822
So is tangent C 35° 30'	9.853268	So is secant C 35° 30'	10.089314
	12.328090		12.559136
To base AB 210.4	2.323090	To hyp. AC 362.3	2.559136

BY GUNTER'S SCALE.

1. Extend the compasses from 35° 30' to its cosine 54° 30' on the line of sines; and that extent will reach from the perpendicular 295 to the base 210.4 on the line of numbers.

2. Extend the compasses, from 54° 30' the complement of C to 90°, on the line of sines; and that extent will reach from the perpendicular 295 to the hypotenuse 362.3 on the line of numbers.

PROBLEM IV.

GIVEN THE HYPOTHENUSE AND THE BASE TO FIND THE ANGLES AND THE PERPENDICULAR.

In the right angled plane triangle ABC, fig. 4. Given the hypotenuse AC = 480, and the base AB = 288, to find the angles A and C, and the perpendicular BC.

1. *Making the hypotenuse radius*, BC will be the sine of the angle A, and AB the cosine of the same angle. See fig. 1. Hence.

To find the angle A.		To find the perpendicular BC.	
As hyp. AC 480	= 2.681241	As radius 90°	= 10.000000
Is to radius 90	10.000000	Is to hyp. AC 480	2.681241
So is base AB 288	2.459392	So is sine A 53° 8'	9.903108
	12.459392		12.584349
To cosine A 53° 8'	9.778151	To perp. BC 384	2.584349

2. *Making the base radius*. BC will be the tangent of A, and AC the secant of A. See fig. 2. Hence.

To find the angle A.		To find the perpendicular BC.	
As the base AB = 288	2.459392	As radius 90°	10.000000
Is to radius 90°	10.000000	Is to the base AB 288	2.459392
So is hyp. AC 480	2.681241	So is tang. A 53° 8'	10.124990
	12.681241		12.584312
To secant A 53° 8'	10.221849	To perp. BC = 384	2.584312

BY GUNTER'S SCALE.

1st. Extend the compasses from the hypotenuse 480, to the base 288, on the line of numbers; that extent will reach from 90 to 36° 52', on the line of sines, the complement of the angle A.

PROBLEM V.

GIVEN THE HYPOTHENUSE AND PERPENDICULAR, TO FIND THE ANGLES AND THE BASE.

In the right angled plane triangle ABC, fig. 4. Given the hypotenuse AC = 480, and the perpendicular BC = 384; required the angles and the base.

1. *Making the hypotenuse radius*, BC will be the sine of the angle A, and AB the cosine thereof. See fig. 1. Hence.

To find the angle A.		To find the base AB.	
As hyp. AC = 480	2.681241	As radius 90°	10.000000
Is to radius 90°	10.000000	Is to hyp. AC = 487	2.681241
So is perp. BC 384	2.584331	So is cosine A 53° 8'	9.778119
	9.903090		2.459360
To sine A 53° 8'		To base AB 288	

2. *Making the perpendicular radius*, AB will be the tangent of C, or the cotangent of A; and AC will be the secant of C, or the cosecant of A. See fig. 3. Hence.

To find the angle A.		To find the base AB.	
As perp. BC = 384	2.584331	As radius 90°	10.000000
Is to radius 90°	10.000000	Is to perp. BC = 384	2.584331
So is hyp. AC 480	2.681241	So is cotangent A 53° 8'	9.875010
	10.096910		2.459341
To cosecant A 53° 8'		To base AB = 288.	

BY GUNTER'S SCALE.

1st. Extend the compasses from the hypotenuse 480 to the perpendicular 384, on the line of numbers, and that extent will reach from 90° to 53° 8' on the line of sines.

2d. Extend the compasses from 90° to 36° 52' the complement of A, on the line of sines, and that extent will reach from 480 to 288, on the line of numbers.

PROBLEM VI.

GIVEN THE BASE AND PERPENDICULAR TO FIND THE ANGLES AND THE HYPOTHENUSE.

In the right angled plane triangle ABC, fig. 4, given the base AB = 288, and the perpendicular BC = 384, to find the angles at A and C, and the hypotenuse AC.

1. *Making the base radius*, BC will be the tangent, and AC the secant of the angle A. See fig. 3. Hence.

To find the angle A.		To find the hypotenuse AC.	
As base AB = 288	2.459392	As radius 90°	10.000000
Is to radius 90°	10.000000	Is to base AB = 288	2.459392
So is perp. BC 384	2.584331	So is Secant A 53° 8'	10.221881
	10.124939		2.681273
To tangent A 53° 8'		To hypoth. AC 480	

2. *Making the perpendicular radius*, AB will be the tangent of C, or the co-

tangent of A; and AC will be the secant of C, or the cosecant of A. See fig. 3. Hence

To find the angle A.		To find the hypotenuse AC.	
As perp. AC = 384	2.584331	As radius 90°	10.000000
Is to radius 90°	10.000000	Is to perp. BC = 384	2.584331
So is base AB 288	2.459392	So is cosec. A 53° 8'	10.096892
	10.124961		2.681223
To cotangent A 53° 8'		To hyp. AC 480	

BY GUNTER'S SCALE.

1st. Extend the compasses from 384 to 288 on the line of numbers, and that extent will reach from 45° to 53° 8', on the line of tangents.

2d. Extend the compass from 53° 8' to 90°, on the line of sines, and that extent will reach from 384 to 480, on the line of numbers.

The foregoing examples embrace all the variety of cases that can be solved in right angled trigonometry. We are now about to treat of

OBLIQUE ANGLED TRIGONOMETRY.

RULE 1.—WHEN TWO OF THE THREE GIVEN PARTS ARE A SIDE, AND ITS OPPOSITE ANGLE.

Any one side of a triangle,
Is to the sine of its opposite angle;
As any other side
Is to the sine of its opposite angle.
And, the sine of any angle,
Is to its opposite side;
As the sine of any other angle,
Is to its opposite side.

An angle, found by this rule is sometimes *ambiguous*; for trigonometry gives us only the sine of an angle, and not the angle itself, and the sine of every angle is also the sine of its supplement. When the *given* side opposite to the *given* angle, is greater than the other *given* side; then the angle opposite to that other *given* side is always acute. But when the *given* side opposite to the *given* angle is less than the other *given* side, then the angle, opposite that other *given* side may be either acute or obtuse, and consequently it is *ambiguous*.

RULE 2.—WHEN TWO SIDES AND THEIR INCLUDED ANGLE ARE GIVEN.

As the sum of the two given sides,
Is to their difference;
So is the tangent of half the sum of the opposite angles,
To the tangent of half their difference.
This half difference between the two required angles being *added* to half their sum, gives the *greater* angle, and *subtracted* from half their sum, gives the *less*.
The remaining side of the triangle is then found by rule 1.

RULE 3.—WHEN THE THREE SIDES ARE GIVEN TO FIND THE ANGLES.

Assume the longest of the three sides as base, upon which suppose a perpendicular to be let fall from the opposite angle. Then.

As the base or longest side,
Is to the sum of the two other sides.
So is the difference of those sides,
To the difference of the segments of the base.
Then *half* the base, or longest side, added to the said difference, gives the greater segment of the base, and subtracted, gives the less.

The triangle being thus divided into two right angled triangles, each of which contains two given sides, the remaining angles may be found by rule 1. It is to be observed, that the greater segment is always adjacent to the greater side.

To enable us, therefore, to find the sides and angles of an oblique angled triangle, *three* of them must be given. These may be either

1. Two angles and a side, or
2. Two sides and an angle *opposite* to one of them, or
3. Two sides and the *included* angle, or
4. The three sides.

PROBLEM I.

GIVEN THE ANGLES AND ONE SIDE TO FIND THE OTHER ANGLE AND REMAINING SIDES.

In the plane triangle ABC, given the angle at A = 32° 15', the angle at B = 114° 25' and the side AB = 98, to find the angle C, and the sides AC and BC.

Fig. 6.

To the angle A = 32° 15' add the angle B = 114° 25' and the sum will be 146° 40'; which subtract from 180° and it leaves the angle C = 33° 20'. Then

BY RULE 1.

To find the side AC.		To find the side BC.	
Sine of C = 33° 20'	9.739975	Sine C = 33° 20'	9.739975
Is to side AB = 98	1.991226	Is to side AB 98	1.991226
As sine B 114° 25', or 65° 35'	9.959310	As sine A 32° 15'	9.727228
	11.950536		11.718454
To side AC = 162.39	2.210561	To side BC, 95.17	1.978479



NOTE.—In all cases where the angle is *obtuse*, or greater than 90° , subtract it from 180, and with the remainder, take out the sine, tangent, or secant, from the tables. Thus, if we subtract $114^\circ 25'$ (as in the above example,) from 180, it leaves $65^\circ 35'$, the tabular sine of which is 9,959310, and is exactly the same for $114^\circ 25'$. And, generally—The tabular sine, tangent, or secant of an obtuse angle, is the same as that of its supplement, and the contrary.

BY GUNTER'S SCALE.

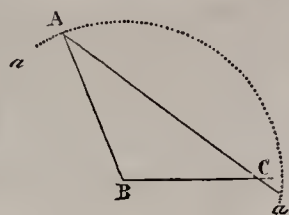
1. Extend the compasses from $33^\circ 20'$ to $65^\circ 35'$ the supplement of B, on the line of sines, and that extent will reach from 98 to 162, on the line of numbers.
2. Extend the compasses from $33^\circ 20'$ to $32^\circ 15'$, on the line of sines, and that extent will reach from 98 to 95, on the line of numbers.

PROBLEM II.

GIVEN TWO SIDES AND AN ANGLE OPPOSITE TO ONE OF THEM, TO FIND THE REMAINING SIDE AND ANOLES.

In the triangle ABC, (fig. 7.) given the angle $C=33^\circ 20'$ the side $AB=98$, and the side $BC=95.17$, to find the angles at A and B, and the side AC.

Fig. 7.



Here, agreeably to the observation under Rule 1. the angle A is acute, and not ambiguous; but had the side AB been less than the side BC, the arc *aa* would evidently have cut the side AC in two points on the same side of BC.

BY RULE 1.

To find the angles A and B.		To find the side AC.	
AB=98	1.991226	Sine C=33° 20'	9.739975
: Sine C 33° 20'	9.739975	: Side AB=98	1.991226
:: BC 95.17	1.978479	:: Sine B 114° 25' or 65° 35'	9.959310
	11.718454		11.950536
: Sine A 32° 15'	9.727228	: Side AC=162.39	2.210561

The sum of the angles A and C, subtracted from 180° , leaves the obtuse angle $B=114^\circ 25'$.

BY GUNTER'S SCALE.

1. Extend the compasses from 98 to 95, on the line of numbers, and that extent will reach from $33^\circ 20'$ to $32^\circ 15'$, on the line of sines.
2. Add the angles $A=32^\circ 15'$ and $C=33^\circ 20'$, together, and the sum will be $65^\circ 35'$; then extend the compasses from $33^\circ 20'$ to $65^\circ 35'$ on the line of sines, and that extent will reach from 98 to 162.4 on the line of numbers.

2. Given. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{The angle } C=33^\circ 20' \\ \text{The side } BC=95.17 \\ \text{The side } AB=60 \end{array} \right\}$ Required the angles A and B, and the side AC.

The geometrical construction of this triangle, (fig. 8.) is exactly the same as in the preceding example; only AB, being shorter than BC, cuts AC in two points on the same side of BC, wherefore the angle A may be either acute or obtuse. We may work

BY RULE I.

To find the angles A and B.		To find the side AC.	
Side AB=60	1.778151	Sine C=33° 20'	9.739975
: Sine C 33° 20'	9.739975	: Side AB 60	1.778151
:: Side BC 95.17	1.978479	:: Sine B 86° 1'	9.998950
	11.718454		11.777101
: Sine A $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 60^\circ 39' \text{ acute} \\ 119^\circ 21' \text{ obtuse} \end{array} \right\}$	9.940303	: Side AC 108.92	2.037127
The sum of the angles C and A subtracted from 180° , leaves the angle $B=86^\circ 1'$, if it be acute; or $27^\circ 1'$ if it be acute. It is evident that the two sides BA, and BA, and exactly equal, because they are radii of the same arc <i>aa</i> .			
		Sine C=33° 20'	9.739975
		: Side AB 60	1.778151
		:: Sine B 27° 19'	9.661726
			11.439877
		: Side AC=50.11	1.699902

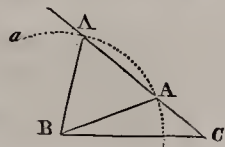


Fig. 9.

PROBLEM III.

GIVEN TWO SIDES AND THEIR INCLUDED ANGLE, TO FIND THE OTHER SIDE AND REMAINING ANGLES.

In the plain triangle ABC, (fig. 6.) given the side $AB=98$, the side $BC=95.17$, and the included angle $B=114^\circ 25'$, to find the rest.

First, find the sum and difference of the two given sides.

The side AB = 98	The side AB = 98
BC 95.17	BC 95.17
Sum of the sides, 193.17	Difference of the sides, 2.83

Next, subtract the given angle $B=114^\circ 25'$, from 180, and it leaves $65^\circ 35'$ for the sum of the other two angles. Half of $65^\circ 35'$ is $32^\circ 47' 30''$. Then,

By RULE 2.—As the sum of the two sides	193.17	2.285940
Is to their difference	2.83	0.451786
So is tangent of half the unknown angles	$32^\circ 47' 30''$	9.809055
		10.260841
To tangent of half their difference	$0^\circ 32' 30''$	7.974901
Add this to $\frac{1}{2}$ the sum of the unknown angles	$32^\circ 47' 30''$	
Gives the greater angle at C=	$33^\circ 20' 00''$	
Subtracted, gives the less, at A =	$32^\circ 15' 00''$	
Or—		
As the sum of the two sides	193.17	2.285940
Is to their difference	2.83	0.451786
So is cotangent of $\frac{1}{2}$ the given angle $57^\circ 12' 30''$		9.809055
		10.260841
To tangent of $\frac{1}{2}$ the difference of unknown angles.	$0^\circ 32' 30''$	7.974901

To find the side AC.

As sine of C = $33^\circ 20'$	9.739975
Is to the side AB 98	1.991226
So is sine B = $114^\circ 25'$, or $65^\circ 35'$	9.959310
	11.950536
To side AC.	162.39
	2.210561

BY GUNTER'S SCALE.

1. Extend the compasses from 193.17 to 2.83 on the line of numbers, and that extent will reach from $32^\circ 47' 30''$ to $0^\circ 32' 30''$ on the line of tangents. This is the method of working such examples as this; but so small an angle as $0^\circ 32' 30''$ cannot be taken from the scale.
2. Extend from $33^\circ 20'$ to $65^\circ 35'$ on the line of sines, and that extent will reach from 98 to 162.4 on the line of numbers.

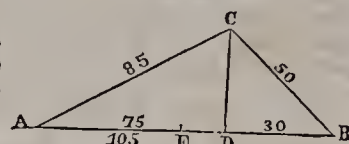
PROBLEM IV.

GIVEN THE THREE SIDES TO FIND THE ANGLES.

First, find the sum and difference of the two shorter sides.

Fig. 9.

Side AC	85	Side AC.	85
BC	50	BC.	50
Sum of the two sides	135	Difference	35



By RULE 3.—As the longest side AB = 105	2.021189
Is to the sum of the other two	135
So is their difference	35
	2.130334
	1.544068
	3.674402
	1.653213

To the difference of the segments ED 45	
Half of the said difference, is	22.5
Added to half the base	52.5
Gives the greater segment AD	75
Subtracted, gives the less	30

Thus, the triangle is divided into two right angled triangles, ADC and BDC; in each of which the hypotenuse and one side are given, to find the angles, as already taught in right-angled trigonometry.

To find the angle DCA.

As hyp. AC 95	1.929419	To find the angle DCB:	
Is to rad. 90°	10.000000	As hyp. BC 50	1.698970
So is seg. AD 75	1.375061	Is to rad.	10.000000
	11.375061	So is seg. BD. 30	1.477121
To sine DCA $61^\circ 56'$	9.945642	To sine DCB, $36^\circ 52'$	1.477121
The angle DCA $61^\circ 56'$ subtracted from 90° , leaves the angle at A $28^\circ 4'$.			9.778151
The angle DCB $36^\circ 52'$ subtracted from 90° , leaves the angle at B $53^\circ 8'$.			
The angle DCA $61^\circ 56'$ added to the angle DCB $36^\circ 52'$ gives $98^\circ 48'$ for the obtuse angle at C, which was required.			

The preceding solutions are all effected by means of the tabular sines, tangents, and secants. But when any two sides of a right angled triangle are given, the third side may be found without the aid of trigonometrical tables, by the proposition, that the square of the hypotenuse is equal to the sum of the squares of the two perpendicular sides; (See Geometry, Theorem 17.)

If the legs be given, extracting the square root of the sum of their squares, will give the hypotenuse. Or if the hypotenuse and one leg be given, extracting the square root of the difference of their squares, will give the other leg. It is generally most convenient to find the difference of the squares by *logarithms*. But this is not to be done by *subtraction*. For subtraction, in logarithms, performs the office of *division*. If we subtract the logarithm of the square of the base, from the logarithm of the square of the hypotenuse, we shall have the logarithm, not of the *difference* of the squares, but of their quotient.

To obtain the difference of the squares of two quantities, add the logarithm of the sum of the quantities, to the logarithm of their difference. After the logarithm of the difference of the squares is found; the *square root* of this difference is obtained, by dividing the logarithm by 2.

EXAMPLE 1. If the base be 60 inches, and the perpendicular 45, what is the length of the hypotenuse.

1. By extracting the square root.

$$\begin{array}{r} 60 \times 60 = 3600 \\ 45 \times 45 = 2025 \\ \hline 56.25 (75 \text{ inches.}) \\ 49 \\ \hline 145)725 \\ 725 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

2. By Logarithms.

	Logarithm.
Sq. of the given sides = 5625	2)3.750123
Side required = 75	1.875061

EXAMPLE 2.—If the hypotenuse be 75 inches, and the base 60, what is the length of the perpendicular.

1. By extracting the square root.

$$\begin{array}{r} 75 \times 75 = 5625 \\ 60 \times 60 = 3600 \\ \hline 20.25 (45 \text{ inches.}) \\ 16 \\ \hline 85)425 \\ 425 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

2. By Logarithms.

	Logarithm.
Sum of the given sides = 135	2.130334
Difference of do. = 15	1.176091
	2)3.306425
Side required 45	1.653212

EXAMPLE 3. If the hypotenuse be 75 inches, and the perpendicular 45, what is the length of the base.

1. By extracting the square root.

$$\begin{array}{r} 75 \times 75 = 5625 \\ 45 \times 45 = 2025 \\ \hline 36.00 (60 \text{ inches.}) \\ 36 \\ \hline 00 \end{array}$$

2. By Logarithms.

	Logarithm.
Sum of the given sides = 120	2.079181
Difference of do. = 30	1.477121
	2)3.556302
Side required 60	1.778151

There is a roof whose span or width is 40 feet, and height 10 feet, standing upon a rectangle plan, hipped at each end. What is the length of the common rafters and likewise the hip rafters (See Fig. 64, Pl. 34 of Mensuration)

EXAMPLE.—One half of the span AD is 20 feet; and the perpendicular height CD is 10 feet, to find the length of the common rafters AC or BC. The square of 20 and 10 is 400, the square root of which is 22.36 feet, for the length of the common rafters AC or BC.

Now the hip rafters are the hypotenuses of right-angled triangles; having a common rafter for one of the legs and the other leg being equal to half the width of the roof. Now we will suppose AC or BC to be the length of the common rafter, which is 22.36 feet, and AD half the width of roof, (which is 20 feet,) to find the length of the hip rafter EG. The square of 22.36 and 20 is 899.9696, the square root of which is 29.99 feet, being a trifle less than 30 feet.

HEIGHTS AND DISTANCES.

PROBLEM I.

TO FIND THE PERPENDICULAR HEIGHT OF AN ACCESSIBLE OBJECT STANDING ON A HORIZONTAL PLANE.

RULE 1.—Measure from the object to a convenient station, on a base line, and there take the angle of the elevation, subtended by the object.

2. Then say: As radius is to the base :: so is the tangent of the angle of elevation, to the perpendicular height.

3. Or more briefly, thus—From the logarithm of the distance of the station from the object, increased by 10 in the index, subtract the tangent of the elevation; the remainder will be the logarithm of the perpendicular height, in the same denomination of measure, as the distance was taken in.

EXAMPLE 1.—Wanting to know if a particular tree was of sufficient height to make a sill of a required length. I measured off 40 feet from the foot of the tree, and there found the angle, subtended by the tree, to be 56° 30'. Required the height of the tree? (See Fig. 14, Plate 1.)

In this example, we have a plane triangle, right-angled at B, with the base and other angles given, to find the perpendicular. Making the base AB radius, because it is the side which is given (See case 2, Trig.) the perpendicular becomes the tangent of the angle at A, and the proportion is stated thus:

As radius, or sine	90°	10.000000
Is to the base AB = 40		1.602060
So is tangent A = 56° 30'		10.179217
To the perp. BC 60.43		1.781277

EXAMPLE 2. Wanting to ascertain the elevation of a church and steeple, (See Fig. 13, Pl. 1) similar to one I had undertaken to build, and not being able, otherwise, to obtain the measurements, I measured off 275 feet from the base of the porch and by means of a hemistant (fig. 11) took the following angles:

1. To the top of the ridge, the angle ADE was 6° 14'.
2. To the top of the belfrey, the angle ADD was 10° 18'.
3. To the commencement of the spire ADC was 13° 18'.
4. To the top of the spire ADB was 20° 0'.

Required the height of each part.

Here the same things are given, and required as in the first example, and the operations being precisely the same, may be abridged by simply adding together the first and second terms, and rejecting 10 from the sum of their indices: thus:

1. Base DA = 275	2.439333	3. Base DA 275 =	2.439333
Tang. ADE = 6° 14'	9.038216	Tang. ADC 13° 18' =	9.373629
Perp. AE 30.03 =	1.477649	Perp. AC = 65	1.812961
2. Base DA = 275	2.439333	4. Base DA 275 =	2.439333
Tang. ADD 10° 18'	9.259428	Tang. ADB 20° =	9.561066
Perp. AD 49.97	1.698761	Perp. AB 100.1 =	2.000399

EXAMPLE 3. Three places, A, B, and C, (See Fig. 66, Plate 34 of Mensuration) are so situated, that A is directly south of B, and C directly east of A, at the distance of four miles. The bearing of C from B is 25° east. Required the distance of B, from A and C.

Here, making the hypotenuse BC radius, the proportion will be

As sine B = 25°	9.625948
Is to perp. AC 4	0.681241
So is rad. 90°	10.000000
To dist. BC = 11.36	1.055293

In like manner, the distance AB will be found to be 10.29.

PROBLEM II.

TO FIND THE PERPENDICULAR HEIGHT OF AN OBJECT STANDING ON AN EMINENCE.

RULE 1. Measure from the foot of the object to a convenient station on the plane beneath, and there take the angle of elevation, both of the top and bottom of the object.

2. Then say—As the cosine of the larger angle is to the difference of the two angles; so is the distance of the station from the foot of the object, to the height of the object.

EXAMPLE.—Wanting to know the height of a tower standing on a hill (See Fig. 65.) I measured the distance from the base of the object at B, to the foot of the hill at A, and found it 136 feet. At A, I took the angle to the bottom of the tower, 48° 30' and to the top, 67°. Required the height of the building, and the elevation of the hill. Thus:

As cosine 67°	9.591878
Is to the diff. of the Ls. 18° 30'	9.501476 sine.
So is dist. AB = 136	2.133339
	11635015
To height BC = 110.44	2.043137

2. To find the height of the hill, say

As radius	10.000000
Is to 110.44	2.043137
So is sine 48° 30'	9.874456
To height of hill = 82.71	1.917593

PROBLEM III.

TO FIND THE DISTANCE BETWEEN TWO INACCESSIBLE OBJECTS.

RULE.—Measure a base line between two stations, and the angles between this base and lines drawn from each of the stations to each of the objects.

EXAMPLE. Let B and C, (fig. 67) be two buildings on the opposite banks of a river, and A, D two stations, lying in the same plane, 113 rods apart. Let the angle BAD made by the first building and the second station, be 100°; the angle CAD made by the second building and the second station, 36° 30'; let the angle CDA made by the second building and the first station, be 121°, and the angle BDA made by the first building and the first station, 49°. Required the distance between the two buildings B and C,

$$180^\circ \text{ less the sum of BDA and BAD} = \text{ABD} = 31^\circ$$

$$180^\circ \text{ less the sum of CAD and CDA} = \text{ACD} = 22^\circ 30'.$$

1. In the oblique angled triangle ABD, find DB, thus:

As the sine of ABD = 31°	9.711839
Is to the distance AD = 113	2.053078
So is the sine of BAD = 100°, (or 80°)	9.993352
	12.046430
To the distance DB 216.	2.334591

2. In the triangle ADC, find DC thus:

As the sine of ACD = 22° 30'	9.582840
Is to the distance AD = 113	2.053078
So is the sine of CAD = 36° 30'	9.774388
	11.827466
To the distance DC = 175.64	2.244626

3. In the triangle BDC, we find the angle BDC, by subtracting the angle ADB = 49° from ADC = 121°: which gives 72°, with which, and the sides DB and DC, (as already found) we determine the length of the required side BC, by case 2 of oblique angled trigonometry, wherein two sides, and their contained angle are given to find the remaining sides and angles. Thus:

DB + DC	
As the sum of 216 + 175.64 = 391.64	2.592887
Is to their diff. 216 - 175.64 40.36	1.605951
So is tang. of ½ supp. of BDC = 54°	10.138759
	11.744690
To tang. of half the diff. of rem. angles = 8° 4'	9.151803

4. Having thus found half the difference of the required angles, the required side is soonest found by the following proportion. viz.

As the sine of half the diff. = 8° 4'	9.147136
Is to the sine of half their sum = 54°	9.907958
So is the diff. of the given sides 40.36	1.605951
	11.513909
To the distance BC = 232.6	2.366773

The principles of trigonometry are no less essential to the measurement of lines and angles, on water, than they are on land: Hence their application to

NAVIGATION.

In applying the principles of trigonometry to the art of navigation, the *distance* which a ship sails, is represented by the hypotenuse of a right angled triangle; the *course* or direction of the ship, is the angle at the perpendicular. The base represents the *departure*, which is always opposite to the course; and the perpendicular, which is always opposite to the complement of the course, represents the *difference of latitude*. To illustrate these observations by an example: (see fig. 68.)

Suppose a ship sails from the point A, on a course of 45°. S.E. 84 miles to C. Required her departure AB, and diff. of latitude CB.

Making the distance, that is, the hypotenuse, radius, the perpendicular will be,

As radius or 90°	10.000000
Is to the distance 84	1.924279
So is the sine of the course 45°	9.849485
To the departure AB 59.40	1.773764

To find the difference of latitude, use the *cosine* of the course, and proceed as above, exactly.

NOTE.—The line NS, that is drawn in the diagram of the circle, represents the meridian. (See fig. 15. pl. 1.)

MATHEMATICAL INSTRUMENTS, SCALES, & C.

The *Mathematical Instruments*, commonly included in a case for the purposes of drawing, are *compasses* with their appendages, viz: *steel drawing pen*, *pencil holder*, with black lead pencil, *protractor*, or graduated semicircle, *plane scales*, and parallel ruler; to which, are often added other scales and implements, adapted to particular purposes, as land surveying, &c.

The use of the compasses is too well known to require particular explanation. There are in the case, generally, two kinds, one with fixed steel points, and the other with one point fixed. When the unfixed point is taken off, there may be put in its place, a steel drawing pen point. The steel point is put in on the compass, when it is intended therewith to describe circles, or arcs, with ink, which are intended to remain. Occult arcs or such as are to be rubbed out again are most conveniently described with a pencil holder. The other steel pen is used for drawing right lines from any given points in any direction. An explanation of the use of the compasses has been fully given under the head of PRACTICAL GEOMETRY, pages 8 and 9, &c.

The *SCALE* is so called from a Greek word, which signifies a wooden measure of length. It is a thin broad rule of wood, ivory, or brass, divided into different lines of various names and use. The best and most useful scales for architectural purposes, are represented in (figs. 1, 2, and 3, pl. 1); and are of the exact size in which they are usually made. The graduations of these scales have been made with such care, that I believe they may be relied on, for practice, by them who have not the instruments at hand.

(Fig. 1.) The breadth is divided into seven parts, and is numbered, (on the left of the scale) viz. 55, 45, 40, &c. to 20. These numbers are decimals of an inch, as may be seen in the first divisions at the right, that is on the lower part of each division; which is divided into ten parts, or the tenth part of a foot, and the upper part of which is divided into twelve parts, or the twelfth part of a foot. At the right through these several divisions, they are numbered from 1, 2, 3, &c. to 10: again 1, 2, 3, &c. to 20, and so on. And in the upper division on the right, is a line of *chords*, which is numbered from C, viz: 10, 20, 30, &c. to 90. The construction and use of the line of chords is given on the *plane scale*.

In plotting and making architectural drawings, it is most convenient to work upon a scale of one quarter of an inch to a foot; or half an inch. The scale or division which is numbered 40 at the left, is just one quarter of an inch; and that which is numbered 20 in the lower division, is half an inch.

To take of feet and inches from the scale.—Suppose for example it was required to take the distance of ten feet and six inches from the scale, (say the quarter inch) set one foot of the compasses on 10, and open the other leg to the centre of the first division on the left (which is divided into twelve parts). The extent will be the distance required. Again, suppose it is required to take the distance of ten feet and five tenths of a foot, (say from the same scale): set one foot of the compasses on 10, and open the other leg to the centre of the first division on the lower part of the scale, (which is divided into ten parts). The extent will be the distance required.

(Fig. 2) Exhibits the back of the same scale, with inches, eighths, and tenths of inches, &c. And it contains also a *Decimal Diagonal Scale*, for plotting or planning.

The *diagonal scale* is subdivided to hundredth parts of one half and one quarter of an inch; its principle and application will be obvious on inspection; as it may be seen that the perpendiculars are divided into ten equal parts, and through the divisions parallel lines are drawn, the whole length of the scale. Again, the length of the first division is divided both at top and bottom, into ten equal parts, and the points are connected by diagonal lines, so as to take off dimensions or numbers of two or more figures.

EXAMPLES. If the largest divisions be taken as units, the *exterior* smaller divisions will be tenth parts, and the divisions in the height will be *hundredth* parts. If the larger divisions be taken as tens, the next smaller will be *hundredths*, and the smallest thousandths, &c. Each set of divisions being tenth parts of the former ones.

To take the distance representing one and four tenths from the scale, (say the half inch), set one foot of the compasses on the upper line, to the larger division 1, and open the other leg to 4 in the subdivision on the right. The extent will be the distance required.

To take a distance equal to 25, set, in like manner, one foot of the compasses on the larger division 2, and extend the other to the subdivision 5, which will be the distance.

For 346, the larger division being in this case taken as hundredths, set one leg in 3, upon the line marked 6 at the end, and extend the other to the diagonal 4, which will be the extent required.

(Fig. 3) Represents another set of plotting scales for half an inch, one quarter of an inch three eighths, and one eighth of an inch to the foot, &c. and subdivided diagonally for greater exactness. The uses of these are too clear to require farther explanation.

(Fig. 4.) Represents another which is called the *Plane Scale*. The construction of this scale is as follows:

1. With the radius you intend for your scale, describe a semicircle ADB (as in fig 6) and from the centre C draw CD perpendicular to AB, which will divide the semicircle into two quadrants, AD, BD: continue the line CD to S: and draw the tangent BT perpendicular to AB.

2. Divide the quadrant BD, into nine equal parts, then will each of these be ten degrees; subdivide each of these parts into single degrees, and if your radius will admit of it, into minutes, or some aliquot parts of a degree greater than minutes.

3. Set one foot of the compasses in B, and transfer each of the divisions of the quadrant BD to the right line BD, then will BD be a line of *Chords*.

4. From the points 10, 20, 30, &c. in the quadrant BD draw right lines parallel to CD, to cut the radius CB, and they will divide that line into a line of *sines*, which must be numbered from C towards B.

5. If the same line of *sines* be numbered from B towards C, it will become a line of *versed sines*, which may be continued to 180°, if the same divisions be transferred on the same line on the other side of the centre C.

6. From the centre C, through the several divisions of the quadrant BD, draw right lines till they cut the tangent BT, then will the line BT, become a line of *Tangents*.

7. Setting one foot of the compasses in C, extend the other to the several divisions 10, 20, 30, &c. in the tangent line BT, and transfer these extents severally to the right line CS, then will that line be a line of *Secants*.

8. Right lines drawn from A to the several divisions 10, 20, 30, &c. in the quadrant BD, will divide the radius CD into a line of *Semi-tangents*.

9. Divide the quadrant AD into eight equal parts, and from A as a centre, transfer these divisions severally to the right line AD, then will AD be a line of *Rhumbs* each division answering to 11° 15' upon the line of chords. The use of this line is for protracting and measuring angles, according to the common division of the mariners compass. There is another line also on the *planescale*, that is not described in this figure, and is marked ML, which is joined to a line of chords; and shows how many miles of easting or westing correspond to a degree of longitude in every latitude. To describe this line, let the quadrant ABC (fig. 7) be described with the same radius as in fig. 6; thence divide the line AB into sixty equal parts, and through each point draw lines parallel to AC to intersect the arc BC: on B as a centre, transfer the several points of intersection to the right line BC, and then number it from C towards B from 0 to 60, and it will be the line of longitude. And then take these several lines of chords sines, tangents, secants, &c., and place them upon a ruler, as represented in fig. 4, they will form the instrument called the *Plane Scale*.

(Fig. 5.) Represents an *Instrument*, or *Scale*, called the *Sector*; and consist of two rules or legs, moveable round an axis or joint as a centre, having several scales drawn on the faces. some single, others double; the single scales are like those upon a common *Gunter's Scale*, the double scales are those which proceed from the centre, each being laid twice on the same face of the instrument, viz: once on each leg. From these scales dimensions or distances are to be taken when the legs of the instrument are placed in an angular position.

The single scales are used exactly like those upon a common *Gunter Scale*. And those of the double scales, the number of which is seven, viz: the scale of lines marked Lin. or L. the scale of chords marked Cho. or C., the scale of sines marked Sin. or S., the scale of tangents to 45°, and another scale of tangents from 45° to about 76°, both of which are marked Tan. or T., the scale of secants marked Sec. or S., and a scale of Polygons marked Pol.

The scale of lines, chords, sines and tangents under 45°, are all of the same radius beginning at the centre of the instrument, and terminating near the other extremity of each leg, viz: the lines at the division 10, the chords at 60° the sines at 90°, and the tangents at 45°; the remainder of the tangents or those above 45°, arc on the scales beginning at a quarter of the length of the former, counted from the centre, where they are marked with 45°, and extend to 76°. The secants also begin at the same distance from the centre, where they are marked with 0, and are from thence continued to 75°. The scales of polygons are set near the inner edge of the legs, and where these scales begin, they are marked with four and from thence are numbered backward, or towards the centre, to 12.

In describing the use of a sector the terms *lateral distance* and *transverse distance* often occur. By the former is meant the distance taken by the compasses on one of the scales only, beginning at the centre of the sector; and by the latter, the distance taken between any two corresponding divisions of the scales of the same name, the legs of the sector being in an angular position.

The use of the sector depends upon the proportions of the corresponding sides of similar triangles. Suppose for example the triangle ABC (fig. 8) be the form of the sector when set in an angular position; then if we take AB equal to AC, and AD equal to AE, and join BC and DE it is evident that BC and DE will be parallel, therefore by the above mentioned proposition $AB:BC::AD:DE$; so whatever part AD is of AB, the same part DE will be of BC: hence if DE be the *chord sine* or *tangent* of any arc to the radius AD, BC will be the same to the radius AB.

The most useful scales or lines on the sector for *Architectural* purposes is the *Line of Lines*, marked L, the *Line of chords* marked C, and the line of *Polygons* marked Pol., as represented in fig. 5.

Uses of the Line of Lines.—The line of lines is useful to divide a given line into any number of equal parts, or in any proportion, or to find third and fourth proportionals, or to increase a given line in any proportion.

EXAMPLE 1. To divide a given line into any number of equal parts, (suppose 8) make the length of the given line a transverse distance to 8 and 8, the number of parts proposed; then will the transverse distance of 1 and 1 be one of the eight parts, or the eighth part of the whole: and the transverse distance of 3 and 3 will be 3 of the equal parts or $\frac{3}{8}$ of the whole line, &c.

EXAMPLE 2. If a ship sails 59 miles in 9 hours, how far would she sail in 3 hours at the same rate.

Take 59 in your compasses as a transverse distance and set it off from 9 to 9, then the transverse distance 3 and 3 being measured laterally, will be equal to $19\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

EXAMPLE 3. Having a plan or chart constructed upon a scale of 5 feet to an inch, or 5 miles to an inch, it is required to open the sector so that a corresponding scale may be taken from the line of lines.

Make the transverse distance 5 and 5 equal to 1 inch, and this position of the sector will produce the given scale.

EXAMPLE 4. It is required to reduce a scale of 6 inches to a degree, another of 3 inches to a degree.

Make the transverse distance 6 and 6, equal to the lateral distance 3 and 3; then set off any distance from the chart laterally, and the corresponding transverse distance will be the reduced distance required.

EXAMPLE 5. One side, of any triangle being given of any length to measure the other two sides on the same scale.

Suppose for example the triangle ABC (fig. 7, pl. 34 of Mens.) being constructed, and the side AB is 15 feet, to find the side AC and BC.

Take AB in your compasses, and apply it transversely to 15 and 15; to this opening of the sector apply the distance AC in your compasses to the same number on both sides of the rule transversely; and where the two points fall will be the measure on the line of lines of the distance required; the distance AC will fall against 14, 14, and BC against 13, 13, on the line of lines.

Uses of the line of Chords on the Sector.—The use of the line of chords upon the sector, is convenient for protracting any angle, when the paper is so small that an arc cannot be drawn upon it with the radius of a common line of chords.

Suppose for example that the triangle ABD (fig. 9, pl. 1), it was required to set off 20° from the point B on the arc BC. Take the radius AB in your compasses, and set it off transversely from 60° to 60° on the chords, then take the transverse extent from 20° to 20° on the chords; and place one foot of the compasses in B, the other will reach to C, and BC will be the arc required. And by the converse operation any angle or arc may be measured, viz: with any radius describe an arc, and then set that radius transversely from 60° to 60° ; thence take the distance of the arc intercepted between the two legs, and apply it transversely to the chords, which will show the degrees of the given angle.

NOTE.—When the angle to be protracted exceeds 60° you must lay off 60° , and the remaining part; or if it be above 120° lay off 60° twice, and then the remaining part. And in a similar manner any arc above 60° may be measured.

Use of the line of Polygons on the Sector.—This line is also very useful to inscribe a regular polygon in a circle, in plotting on Paper. For example, let it be required to inscribe a regular octagon in a circle. Open the sector till the transverse distance 6 and 6 be equal to the radius of a circle; then will the transverse distance 8 and 8 be the side of the inscribed polygon.

To inscribe any regular polygon in a circle.—Suppose, for example, it is required to inscribe a hexagon as represented in the circle ABCDA (fig. 10, pl. 1.) First find the angle of centre E, by dividing 361° by the number of sides of which the proposed figure is to consist: then from the centre E draw the radiating lines EA, EF, EG, &c. in the angle given by the quotient, and the chord of the angle included between them, will be the side of the hexagon required. Thus, may any regular polygon be described, the radius being always 60° . In the like manner, any regular polygon may be described in a circle with the radius of a common line of chords as represented on the plane scale.

Use of the line of chords on the plane scale.—The definition of a chord is given among those under the head of Geometry, and the lines of this name are divided for the purpose of laying off and measuring angles, on the established principle, that the radius or semidiameter of a circle is equal to the side of a hexagon inscribed in the same circle; or, in other words to the chord of 60° . Hence by taking the extent of the chord of 60° in the compasses, applying one foot to an angular point, and sweeping an arc with the other from leg to leg, (*produced if required*) the exact measure of the angle may be found.

EXAMPLE 1. In the triangle ABD (fig. 9, pl. 1) it is required to construct an angle at the point A of the line AB of any number of degrees, suppose 23.

From the line of chords take in your compasses the extent of 60° ; and setting one foot in A, describe the arc BC; then take 23, the number proposed, from the same line of chords, in your compasses, and set it off from B to C. Join AC, and the angle BAC will contain 23 degrees as required.

EXAMPLE 2. Suppose it is required, to find the pitch of a roof, the angle of which is 25 degrees.

Take, as above, in your compasses the extent of 60° , and set one foot in A, and describe the arc BC, then take 25, the number proposed, in your compasses and set it off from B to C, and join AC. Then will the angle BAC contain 25° as required.

This method of constructing a roof will be found the simplest and best. For if the span of the roof is given, we have only to take one half for the base. Then (by Problem 2, Trigonometry) you may ascertain the length of the rafter, and also the perpendicular height. Though *Carpenters* generally divide the breadth of the building, or span, into some number of equal parts, and then give one of these parts for the height. Suppose it is required to make the height of the roof equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the span. The angle of $\frac{1}{2}$ will be found to contain 18° . If it be equal to $\frac{1}{3}$ the angle will be $21^\circ 30'$. If $\frac{1}{4}$, the angle is 26° . If $\frac{1}{5}$, $33^\circ 30'$, &c.

(Fig. 11, pl. 1) Exhibits an *Instrument* or *Hemistant*, suitably constructed, to take levels and angles of elevation or depression in measuring heights, distances &c. This instrument should be made of hard wood. The diameter AB of the semicircle may be from 2 to 4 feet in length; the larger, the more accurate; and the straight part which extends out from AB, may be from 4 to 5 inches wide; this straight part, and the graduated semicircle, should be made from one piece of board; and $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch will be sufficient for the thickness. To construct the graduated semicircle, let the line AB be drawn, and from D with the radius AD sweep the semicircle ACB; and from the centre D, draw DC at right angles with AB, which will divide the semicircle into two quadrants. To divide these quadrants into degrees; first divide them into 9 equal parts each; then will each of these be 10 degrees; thence subdivide each of these parts into single degrees, and if the radius will admit of it, into minutes, or some aliquot part of a degree greater than minutes, and number them from 0° to 90° each quadrant from C.

In taking angles of elevation, you can use a plummet as represented at H, or there may be a line drawn through the centre of the staff GH, and then let the degrees be drawn across the edge of the board, across the graduated semicircle, which will answer all purposes of a plummet, or even better. E represents the level, and is of the same with that of the straight part AB, and the thickness may be from one and a quarter, to one and a half inches. F represents the spirit level as let into the upper edge.

(Fig. 12.) Shows the plan and section of the same. A represents that part of the level; B the graduated semicircle; C the mortice which is hewed out of that part of the level for the staff to slide through; E represents the screw to hold it fast when the level is placed in its right position.

A, at the upper part of this plate, shows a representation of a *Draught board*, commonly called the *Trustle board*, to which the paper used in drawing is to be fixed. This board is composed of a frame of mahogany or other hard wood: the edges of the frame should be made perfectly straight and square, with a panel about half the thickness of the frame, which is to be let in from the back, and to lie in a rabbet, in the frame, and there to be secured by small buttons; B shows a section of the board, and the buttons by which the panel is kept in its place. Eight in number will be sufficient for a common sized board. It would not be amiss before making the board, to ascertain the size of the paper to be used, and make the panel about two inches less than the sheet. In applying this board to use, lay the paper on a table, and moisten one side of it with a sponge; then place the board upside down near it; take out the panel and lay it on the paper, (one inch of which will extend beyond the panel all around) take hold of the edges of the paper and lift them both into the frame; then fasten the buttons, and when it becomes dry it will be perfectly smooth.

C and D represents the T square for drawing right lines; the blade as represented at D, should not exceed $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch in thickness.

E represents Pool's Geometrical Protractor. It is an instrument highly useful for the practical illustrations of elementary principles. I have used it for the last three years, and would recommend it to all Architects on account of its simplicity, and the ease with which it can be applied. Those wishing to purchase, will find them in all of our principal cities.

A TABLE OF LOGARITHMS OF NUMBERS FROM 1 TO 10,000.

N.	Log.	N.	Log.	N.	Log.	N.	Log.
1	0.000000	26	1.414973	51	1.707570	76	1.880814
2	0.301030	27	1.431361	52	1.716003	77	1.886491
3	0.477121	28	1.447158	53	1.724276	78	1.892095
4	0.602060	29	1.462398	54	1.732394	79	1.897672
5	0.698970	30	1.477121	55	1.740363	80	1.903090
6	0.778151	31	1.491362	56	1.748188	81	1.908485
7	0.845098	32	1.505150	57	1.755875	82	1.913814
8	0.903090	33	1.518514	58	1.763428	83	1.919078
9	0.954233	34	1.531479	59	1.770852	84	1.924279
10	1.000000	35	1.544068	60	1.778151	85	1.929419
11	1.041393	36	1.556303	61	1.785330	86	1.934498
12	1.079181	37	1.568202	62	1.792392	87	1.939519
13	1.113943	38	1.579784	63	1.799341	88	1.944483
14	1.146128	39	1.591065	64	1.806180	89	1.949390
15	1.176091	40	1.602060	65	1.812913	90	1.954243
16	1.204120	41	1.612784	66	1.819544	91	1.959041
17	1.230449	42	1.623249	67	1.826075	92	1.963788
18	1.255273	43	1.633468	68	1.832509	93	1.968483
19	1.278754	44	1.643453	69	1.838849	94	1.973128
20	1.301030	45	1.653213	70	1.845098	95	1.977724
21	1.322219	46	1.662753	71	1.851258	96	1.982271
22	1.342423	47	1.672098	72	1.857333	97	1.986772
23	1.361728	48	1.681241	73	1.863323	98	1.991226
24	1.380211	49	1.690196	74	1.869232	99	1.995635
25	1.397940	50	1.698970	75	1.875061	100	2.000000

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100	0000000	0434	0868	1301	1734	2166	2598	3029	3461	3891	432
101	4321	4751	5181	5609	6038	6466	6894	7321	7748	8174	428
102	8600	9026	9451	9876	300	724	1147	1570	1993	2415	421
103	102837	3259	3680	4100	4521	4940	5360	5779	6197	6616	419
104	7033	7451	7868	8284	8700	9116	9532	9947	10361	10775	416
105	021118	1603	2016	2428	2841	3252	3664	4075	4486	4896	412
106	5306	5715	6125	6533	6942	7351	7757	8164	8571	8978	408
107	9394	9789	10195	10600	10004	10408	10812	11226	11639	12051	404
108	03342	13826	4227	4625	5029	5430	5833	6230	6629	7028	400
109	7426	7825	8233	8620	9017	9414	9811	207	602	998	396
110	041393	1787	2182	2576	2969	3362	3755	4148	4540	4932	393
111	5323	5714	6105	6495	6885	7273	7664	8053	8442	8830	389
112	9218	9606	9993	300	766	1153	1538	1924	2309	2694	383
113	053078	3463	3846	4230	4613	4996	5378	5760	6142	6524	382
114	6905	7286	7666	8046	8426	8805	9185	9563	9942	10320	379
115	060698	1075	1452	1829	2206	2582	2958	3333	3709	4083	376
116	4458	4832	5206	5580	5953	6326	6699	7071	7443	7815	372
117	8186	8557	8928	9298	9668	10037	10407	10776	11145	11513	369
118	071882	2250	2617	2985	3352	3718	4085	4451	4816	5182	366
119	5547	5912	6276	6640	7004	7368	7731	8094	8457	8819	363
120	079181	9543	9904	10266	10626	10987	11347	11707	12067	12426	360
121	082785	3144	3503	3861	4219	4576	4934	5291	5647	6004	357
122	6360	6716	7071	7426	7781	8136	8490	8845	9198	9552	355
123	9905	258	611	963	1315	1667	2018	2370	2721	3071	351
124	093423	2772	4123	5471	6820	8169	9518	10866	12215	13562	348
125	6910	7257	7604	7951	8298	8644	8990	9333	9681	10024	346
126	100371	1075	1059	1403	1749	2094	2434	2777	3119	3462	343
127	3804	4146	4487	4828	5169	5503	5851	6191	6531	6871	340
128	7210	7549	7888	8227	8565	8902	9241	9579	9916	10255	338
129	110590	0926	1263	1599	1934	2270	2605	2940	3275	3609	335
130	113943	4277	4611	4941	5278	5611	5943	6278	6608	6940	333
131	7271	7603	7931	8265	8595	8926	9256	9586	9915	10245	330
132	120574	0903	1231	1560	1888	2216	2544	2871	3198	3525	328
133	3852	4178	4504	4830	5156	5481	5806	6131	6456	6781	325
134	7105	7429	7753	8076	8399	8723	9045	9368	9690	10012	323
135	130334	0655	0977	1298	1619	1939	2260	2580	2900	3219	321
136	3539	3858	4177	4496	4814	5133	5451	5769	6086	6403	318
137	6721	7037	7354	7671	7987	8303	8618	8934	9249	9564	315
138	9879	194	508	822	1136	1450	1763	2076	2389	2702	314
139	143015	3327	3639	3951	4263	4574	4885	5196	5507	5818	311
140	146128	6138	6748	7058	7367	7676	7985	8294	8603	8911	309
141	9219	9527	9835	10142	10449	10756	11063	11370	11678	11982	307
142	152388	2594	2900	3205	3510	3815	4120	4424	4728	5032	305
143	5336	5640	5943	6246	6549	6852	7154	7457	7759	8061	303
144	8362	8661	8965	9266	9567	9868	10169	10469	10769	11069	301
145	161365	1667	1967	2266	2564	2863	3161	3460	3758	4055	299
146	4353	4650	4947	5244	5541	5838	6134	6430	6726	7022	297
147	7131	7613	7908	8203	8497	8792	9086	9380	9674	9968	295
148	170262	0555	0848	1141	1434	1726	2019	2311	2603	2895	293
149	3186	3473	3769	4060	4351	4641	4932	5222	5512	5802	291
150	176091	6381	6670	6959	7248	7536	7825	8113	8401	8689	289
151	8977	9264	9552	9839	10126	10413	10699	10985	11272	11558	287
152	181844	2129	2415	2700	2985	3270	3555	3839	4123	4407	285
153	4691	4975	5259	5542	5825	6109	6391	6674	6956	7239	283
154	7521	7803	8084	8366	8647	8928	9209	9490	9771	10051	281
155	190333	0612	0892	1171	1451	1730	2010	2289	2567	2846	279
156	3125	3403	3681	3959	4237	4514	4792	5069	5346	5623	277
157	5899	6176	6453	6729	7005	7281	7556	7832	8107	8382	274
158	8657	8932	9206	9481	9755	10029	10303	10577	10851	11124	272
159	201397	1670	1913	2216	2488	2761	3033	3305	3577	3848	270
160	204120	4391	1663	1934	2204	2475	2746	3016	3286	3556	267
161	6826	7096	7365	7634	7904	8173	8441	8710	8979	9247	269
162	9515	9785	10051	10319	10586	10853	11121	11388	11654	11926	266
163	212188	2454	2720	2986	3252	3518	3783	4049	4314	4579	267
164	4841	5109	5373	5638	5902	6166	6430	6694	6957	7221	264
165	7484	7717	8010	8273	8536	8799	9062	9325	9588	9846	262
166	220108	0370	0631	0892	1153	1414	1675	1936	2196	2456	261
167	2716	2926	3136	3346	3556	3765	3974	4183	4392	4601	259
168	5309	5568	5826	6084	6342	6600	6858	7115	7372	7630	258
169	7887	8144	8400	8657	8913	9170	9427	9682	9938	10193	256
170	230449	0704	0960	1215	1470	1724	1979	2233	2488	2742	255
171	2996	3250	3504	3757	4011	4264	4517	4770	5023	5276	253
172	5528	5781	6033	6285	6537	6789	7041	7292	7544	7795	252
173	8046	8297	8548	8799	9049	9299	9550	9800	10050	10300	250
174	240549	0799	1048	1297	1546	1795	2044	2293	2541	2790	249
175	3038	3286	3534	3782	4030	4277	4525	4772	5019	5266	248
176	5513	5759	6006	6252	6499	6745	6991	7237	7482	7728	246
177	7973	8219	8464	8709	8954	9198	9443	9687	9932	10176	245
178	250420	0661	0909	1151	1395	1638	1881	2125	2368	2611	243
179	2853	3096	3338	3580	3822	4064	4306	4548	4790	5032	242
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BUILDER'S GUIDE.

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420	623249	3353	3456	3559	3663	3766	3869	3973	4076	4179	103
421	428	4385	4488	4591	4695	4798	4901	5004	5107	5210	103
422	5312	5415	5518	5621	5724	5827	5929	6032	6135	6238	103
423	6340	6443	6546	6648	6751	6853	6956	7058	7161	7263	103
424	7366	7468	7571	7673	7775	7878	7980	8082	8185	8287	102
425	8389	8491	8593	8695	8797	8900	9002	9104	9206	9308	102
426	9410	9512	9613	9715	9817	9919	10021	10123	10224	10326	102
427	630428	0530	0631	0733	0835	0936	1038	1139	1241	1342	102
428	1444	1545	1647	1748	1849	1951	2052	2153	2255	2356	101
429	2457	2559	2660	2761	2862	2963	3064	3165	3266	3367	101
430	3368	3469	3570	3671	3772	3873	3974	4075	4176	4277	100
431	4277	4378	4479	4580	4681	4782	4883	4984	5085	5186	100
432	5187	5288	5389	5490	5591	5692	5793	5894	5995	6096	100
433	6097	6198	6299	6399	6499	6599	6699	6799	6899	6999	99
434	7000	7100	7200	7300	7400	7500	7600	7700	7800	7900	99
435	8001	8101	8201	8301	8401	8501	8601	8701	8801	8901	99
436	9002	9102	9202	9302	9402	9502	9602	9702	9802	9902	99
437	10003	10103	10203	10303	10403	10503	10603	10703	10803	10903	99
438	11004	11104	11204	11304	11404	11504	11604	11704	11804	11904	99
439	12005	12105	12205	12305	12405	12505	12605	12705	12805	12905	99
440	13006	13106	13206	13306	13406	13506	13606	13706	13806	13906	98
441	14007	14107	14207	14307	14407	14507	14607	14707	14807	14907	98
442	15008	15108	15208	15308	15408	15508	15608	15708	15808	15908	98
443	16009	16109	16209	16309	16409	16509	16609	16709	16809	16909	98
444	17010	17110	17210	17310	17410	17510	17610	17710	17810	17910	98
445	18011	18111	18211	18311	18411	18511	18611	18711	18811	18911	97
446	19012	19112	19212	19312	19412	19512	19612	19712	19812	19912	97
447	20013	20113	20213	20313	20413	20513	20613	20713	20813	20913	97
448	21014	21114	21214	21314	21414	21514	21614	21714	21814	21914	97
449	22015	22115	22215	22315	22415	22515	22615	22715	22815	22915	97
450	23016	23116	23216	23316	23416	23516	23616	23716	23816	23916	96
451	24017	24117	24217	24317	24417	24517	24617	24717	24817	24917	96
452	25018	25118	25218	25318	25418	25518	25618	25718	25818	25918	96
453	26019	26119	26219	26319	26419	26519	26619	26719	26819	26919	96
454	27020	27120	27220	27320	27420	27520	27620	27720	27820	27920	96
455	28021	28121	28221	28321	28421	28521	28621	28721	28821	28921	95
456	29022	29122	29222	29322	29422	29522	29622	29722	29822	29922	95
457	30023	30123	30223	30323	30423	30523	30623	30723	30823	30923	95
458	31024	31124	31224	31324	31424	31524	31624	31724	31824	31924	95
459	32025	32125	32225	32325	32425	32525	32625	32725	32825	32925	95
460	33026	33126	33226	33326	33426	33526	33626	33726	33826	33926	94
461	34027	34127	34227	34327	34427	34527	34627	34727	34827	34927	94
462	35028	35128	35228	35328	35428	35528	35628	35728	35828	35928	94
463	36029	36129	36229	36329	36429	36529	36629	36729	36829	36929	94
464	37030	37130	37230	37330	37430	37530	37630	37730	37830	37930	94
465	38031	38131	38231	38331	38431	38531	38631	38731	38831	38931	93
466	39032	39132	39232	39332	39432	39532	39632	39732	39832	39932	93
467	40033	40133	40233	40333	40433	40533	40633	40733	40833	40933	93
468	41034	41134	41234	41334	41434	41534	41634	41734	41834	41934	93
469	42035	42135	42235	42335	42435	42535	42635	42735	42835	42935	93
470	43036	43136	43236	43336	43436	43536	43636	43736	43836	43936	92
471	44037	44137	44237	44337	44437	44537	44637	44737	44837	44937	92
472	45038	45138	45238	45338	45438	45538	45638	45738	45838	45938	92
473	46039	46139	46239	46339	46439	46539	46639	46739	46839	46939	92
474	47040	47140	47240	47340	47440	47540	47640	47740	47840	47940	91
475	48041	48141	48241	48341	48441	48541	48641	48741	48841	48941	91
476	49042	49142	49242	49342	49442	49542	49642	49742	49842	49942	91
477	50043	50143	50243	50343	50443	50543	50643	50743	50843	50943	91
478	51044	51144	51244	51344	51444	51544	51644	51744	51844	51944	91
479	52045	52145	52245	52345	52445	52545	52645	52745	52845	52945	90
480	53046	53146	53246	53346	53446	53546	53646	53746	53846	53946	90
481	54047	54147	54247	54347	54447	54547	54647	54747	54847	54947	90
482	55048	55148	55248	55348	55448	55548	55648	55748	55848	55948	90
483	56049	56149	56249	56349	56449	56549	56649	56749	56849	56949	89
484	57050	57150	57250	57350	57450	57550	57650	57750	57850	57950	89
485	58051	58151	58251	58351	58451	58551	58651	58751	58851	58951	89
486	59052	59152	59252	59352	59452	59552	59652	59752	59852	59952	89
487	60053	60153	60253	60353	60453	60553	60653	60753	60853	60953	88
488	61054	61154	61254	61354	61454	61554	61654	61754	61854	61954	88
489	62055	62155	62255	62355	62455	62555	62655	62755	62855	62955	88
490	63056	63156	63256	63356	63456	63556	63656	63756	63856	63956	88
491	64057	64157	64257	64357	64457	64557	64657	64757	64857	64957	87
492	65058	65158	65258	65358	65458	65558	65658	65758	65858	65958	87
493	66059	66159	66259	66359	66459	66559	66659	66759	66859	66959	87
494	67060	67160	67260	67360	67460	67560	67660	67760	67860	67960	87
495	68061	68161	68261	68361	68461	68561	68661	68761	68861	68961	86
496	69062	69162	69262	69362	69462	69562	69662	69762	69862	69962	86
497	70063	70163	70263	70363	70463	70563	70663	70763	70863	70963	86
498	71064	71164	71264	71364	71464	71564	71664	71764	71864	71964	86
499	72065	72165	72265	72365	72465	72565	72665	72765	72865	72965	85
500	73066	73166	73266	73366	73466	73566	73666	73766	73866	73966	85
501	74067	74167	74267	74367	74467	74567	74667	74767	74867	74967	85
502	75068	75168	75268	75368	75468	75568	75668	75768	75868	75968	85
503	76069	76169	76269	76369	76469	76569	76669	76769	76869	76969	84
504	77070	77170	77270	77370	77470	77570	77670	77770	77870	77970	84
505	78071	78171	78271	78371	78471	78571	78671	78771	78871	78971	84
506	79072	79172	79272	79372	79472	79572	79672	79772	79872	79972	84
507	80073	80173	80273	80373	80473	80573	80673	80773	80873	80973	83
508	81074	81174	81274	81374	81474	81574	81674	81774	81874	81974	83
509	82075	82175	82275	82375	82475	82575	82675	82775	82875	82975	83
510	83076	83176	83276	83376	83476	83576	83676	83776	83876	83976	82
511	84077	84177	84277	84377	84477	84577	84677	84777	84877	84977	82
512	85078	85178	85278	85378	85478	85578	85678	85778	85878	85978	82
513	86079	86179	86279	86379	86479	86579	86679	86779	86879	86979	81
514	87080	87180	87280	87380	87480	87580	87680	87780	87880	87980	81
515	88081	88181	88281	88381	88481	88581	88681	88781	88881	88981	81
516	89082	89182	89282	89382	89482	89582	89682	89782	89882	89982	80
517	90083	90183	90283	90383	90483	90583	90683	90783	90883	90983	80
518	91084	91184	91284	91384	91484	91584	91684	91784	91884	91984	80
519	92085	92185	92285	92385	92485	92585	92685	92785	92885	92985	79
520	93086	93186	93286	93386	93486	93586	93686	93786	93886	93986	79
521	94087	94187	94287	94387	94487	94587	94687	94787	94887	94987	79
522	95088	95188	95288	95388	95488	95588	95688	95788	95888	95988	78

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780	892095	2150	2206	2262	2317	2373	2429	2484	2540	2595	56
781	2651	2707	2762	2818	2873	2929	2985	3040	3096	3151	56
782	3207	3262	3318	3373	3429	3484	3540	3595	3651	3706	56
783	3762	3817	3873	3928	3984	4039	4094	4150	4205	4261	55
784	4316	4371	4427	4482	4538	4593	4648	4704	4759	4814	55
785	4870	4925	4980	5036	5091	5146	5201	5257	5312	5367	55
786	5423	5478	5533	5588	5644	5699	5754	5809	5864	5920	55
787	5975	6030	6085	6140	6195	6251	6306	6361	6416	6471	55
788	6526	6581	6636	6692	6747	6802	6857	6912	6967	7022	55
789	7077	7132	7187	7242	7297	7352	7407	7462	7517	7572	55
790	7627	7682	7737	7792	7847	7902	7957	8012	8067	8122	55
791	8176	8231	8286	8341	8396	8451	8506	8561	8616	8671	55
792	8725	8780	8835	8890	8944	8999	9054	9109	9164	9218	55
793	9273	9328	9383	9437	9492	9547	9602	9656	9711	9765	55
794	9821	9875	9930	9985	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	55
795	900367	0422	0476	0531	0586	0641	0695	0749	0804	0859	55
796	0913	0968	1022	1077	1131	1186	1240	1295	1349	1404	55
797	1458	1513	1567	1622	1676	1731	1785	1840	1894	1948	54
798	2003	2057	2112	2166	2221	2275	2329	2384	2438	2492	54
799	2547	2601	2655	2710	2764	2818	2873	2927	2981	3036	54
800	3090	3144	3199	3253	3307	3361	3416	3470	3524	3578	54
801	3633	3687	3741	3795	3849	3903	3957	4011	4065	4119	54
802	4174	4228	4282	4336	4390	4444	4498	4552	4606	4660	54
803	4716	4770	4824	4878	4932	4986	5040	5094	5148	5202	54
804	5256	5310	5364	5418	5472	5526	5580	5634	5688	5742	54
805	5796	5850	5904	5958	6012	6066	6120	6174	6228	6282	54
806	6335	6389	6443	6497	6551	6605	6659	6713	6767	6821	54
807	6874	6928	6982	7036	7090	7144	7198	7252	7306	7360	54
808	7411	7465	7519	7573	7627	7681	7735	7789	7843	7897	54
809	7949	8002	8056	8110	8163	8217	8271	8325	8378	8431	54
810	8485	8539	8592	8646	8699	8753	8807	8860	8914	8967	54
811	9021	9074	9128	9181	9235	9288	9342	9395	9448	9501	54
812	9556	9610	9663	9716	9770	9823	9877	9930	9984	1.00	53
813	910091	0144	0197	0251	0304	0358	0411	0465	0518	0571	53
814	0624	0678	0731	0784	0838	0891	0944	0998	1051	1104	53
815	1158	1211	1264	1317	1371	1424	1477	1530	1583	1637	53
816	1690	1743	1797	1850	1903	1956	2009	2062	2116	2169	53
817	2222	2275	2328	2381	2435	2488	2541	2594	2647	2700	53
818	2753	2806	2859	2913	2966	3019	3072	3125	3178	3231	53
819	3284	3337	3390	3443	3496	3549	3602	3655	3708	3761	53
820	3814	3867	3920	3973	4026	4079	4132	4185	4237	4290	53
821	4343	4396	4449	4502	4555	4608	4661	4714	4767	4819	53
822	4872	4925	4978	5031	5084	5137	5190	5243	5296	5349	53
823	5400	5453	5505	5558	5611	5664	5717	5769	5822	5875	53
824	5927	5980	6033	6085	6138	6191	6243	6296	6349	6401	53
825	6454	6507	6559	6612	6664	6717	6770	6822	6875	6927	53
826	6990	7043	7095	7148	7200	7253	7305	7358	7410	7463	53
827	7506	7558	7611	7663	7716	7768	7820	7873	7925	7978	52
828	8030	8083	8135	8188	8240	8293	8345	8397	8450	8502	52
829	8555	8607	8659	8712	8764	8816	8869	8921	8973	9026	52
830	9107	9160	9212	9265	9317	9370	9422	9475	9527	9580	52
831	9601	9653	9706	9758	9810	9862	9914	9967	1.00	1.00	52
832	920123	0176	0228	0280	0332	0384	0436	0489	0541	0593	52
833	0615	0667	0719	0771	0823	0875	0927	0979	1031	1083	52
834	1166	1218	1270	1322	1374	1426	1478	1530	1582	1634	52
835	1686	1738	1790	1842	1894	1946	1998	2050	2102	2154	52
836	2206	2258	2310	2362	2414	2466	2518	2570	2622	2674	52
837	2725	2777	2829	2881	2933	2985	3037	3089	3141	3193	52
838	3244	3296	3348	3399	3451	3503	3555	3607	3658	3710	52
839	3762	3814	3865	3917	3969	4021	4072	4124	4176	4228	52
840	921979	4331	4383	4434	4486	4538	4589	4641	4693	4744	52
841	4796	4848	4899	4951	5003	5054	5106	5157	5209	5261	52
842	5312	5364	5415	5467	5518	5570	5621	5673	5725	5776	52
843	5828	5879	5931	5982	6033	6085	6137	6188	6240	6291	51
844	6342	6394	6445	6497	6548	6600	6651	6702	6754	6805	51
845	6857	6908	6959	7011	7062	7114	7165	7216	7268	7319	51
846	7370	7422	7473	7524	7576	7627	7678	7729	7781	7832	51
847	7883	7935	7986	8037	8088	8140	8191	8242	8293	8345	51
848	8396	8447	8498	8549	8600	8651	8702	8753	8804	8855	51
849	8908	8959	9010	9061	9112	9163	9214	9265	9317	9368	51
850	929419	9470	9521	9572	9623	9674	9725	9776	9827	9879	51
851	9930	9981	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	51
852	930140	0491	0542	0593	0644	0695	0746	0797	0847	0898	51
853	0949	1000	1051	1102	1153	1204	1254	1305	1356	1407	51

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	D.
854	1458	1509	1560	1610	1661	1711	1763	1814	1865	1915	51
855	1966	2017	2068	2118	2169	2220	2271	2322	2372	2423	51
856	2474	2524	2575	2626	2677	2727	2778	2829	2879	2930	51
857	2981	3031	3082	3133	3183	3234	3285	3335	3386	3437	51
858	3487	3538	3589	3639	3690	3740	3791	3841	3892	3943	51
859	3993	4044	4094	4145	4195	4246	4296	4347	4397	4448	51
860	934498	4549	4599	4650	4700	4751	4801	4852	4902	4953	50
861	5003	5054	5104	5154	5205	5255	5306	5356	5406	5457	50
862	5507	5558	5608	5658	5709	5759	5809	5860	5910	5960	50
863	6011	6061	6111	6162	6212	6262	6313	6363	6413	6463	50
864	6514	6564	6614	6665	6715	6765	6815	6865	6916	6966	50
865	7016	7066	7117	7167	7217	7267	7317	7367	7418	7468	50
866	7518	7568	7618	7668	7718	7769	7819	7869	7919	7969	50
867	8019	8069	8119	8169	8219	8269	8320	8370	8420	8470	50
868	8520	8570	8620	8670	8720	8770	8820	8870	8920	8970	50
869	9020	9070	9120	9170	9220	9270	9320	9370	9420	9470	50
870	939519	9569	9619	9669	9719	9769	9819	9869	9919	9969	50
871	940018	0068	0118	0168	0218	0267	0317	0367	0417	0467	50
872	0516	0566	0616	0666	0716	0765	0815	0865	0915	0964	50
873	1014	1064	1114	1163	1213	1263	1313	1362	1412	1462	50
874	1511	1561	1611	1660	1710	1760	1809	1859	1909	1958	50
875	2008	2058	2107	2157	2207	2256	2306	2355	2405	2455	50
876	2504	2554	2603	2653	2702	2752	2801	2851	2901	2950	50
877	3000	3049	3099	3148	3198	3247	3297	3346	3396	3445	49
878	3495	3544	3593	3643	3692	3742	3791	3841	3890	3939	49
879	3989	4038	4088	4137	4186	4236	4285	4334	4383	4433	49
880	944453	4532	4581	4631	4680	4729	4779	4828	4877	4927	49
881	4976	5025	5074	5124	5173	5222	5272	5321	5370	5419	49
882	5469	5518	5567	5616	5665	5714	5764	5813	5862	5912	49
883	5961	6010	6059	6108	6157	6207	6256	6305	6354	6403	49
884	6452	6501	6551	6600	6649	6698	6747	6796	6845	6894	49
885	6943	6992	7041	7090	7140	7188	7238	7287	7336	7385	49
886	7434	7483	7532	7581	7630	7679	7728	7777	7826	7875	49
887	7924	7973	8022	8070	8119	8168	8217	8266	8315	8364	49
888	8413	8462	8511	8560	8609	8657	8706	8755	8804	8853	49
889	8902	8951	8999	9048	9097	9144	9195	9244	9292	9341	49
890	949390	9439	9488	9536	9585	9634	9683	9731	9780	9829	49
891	9878	9926	9975	. 21	. 73	121	170	219	267	316	49
892	950365	0144	0462	0511	0560	0608	0657	0706	0754	0803	49
893	0851	0900	0949	0997	1046	1095	1143	1192	1240	1289	49
894	1338	1386	1435	1483	1532	1580	1629	1677	1726	1775	49
895	1823	1872	1920	1969	2017	2066	2114	2163	2211	2260	48
896	2306	2356	2405	2453	2502	2550	2599	2647	2696	2744	48
897	2792	2841	2889	2938	2986	3034	3083	3131	3180	3228	48
898	3276	3325	3373	3421	3470	3518	3566	3615	3663	3711	48
899	3760	3808	3856	3903	3953	4001	4049	4096	4144	4194	48
900	352443	4291	4339	4387	4435	4484	4532	4580	4628	4677	48
901	4725	4773	4821	4869	4918	4966	5014	5062	5110	5158	48
902	5207	5255	5303	5351	5399	5447	5495	5543	5592	5640	48
903	5688	5736	5784	5832	5880	5928	5976	6024	6072	6120	48
904	6168	6216	6265	6313	6361	6409	6457	6505	6553	6601	48
905	6649	6697	6745	6793	6840	6888	6936	6984	7032	7080	48
906	7128	7176	7224	7272	7320	7368	7416	7464	7512	7559	48
907	7607	7655	7703	7751	7799	7847	7894	7942	7990	8038	48
908	8086	8134	8182	8229	8277	8325	8373	8421	8468	8516	48
909	8564	8612	8659	8707	8755	8803	8850	8898	8946	8994	48
910	959041	9089	9137	9185	9232	9280	9328	9375	9423	9471	48
911	9518	9566	9614	9661	9709	9757	9804	9852	9900	9947	48
912	9995	. 42	. 90	138	185	233	280	328	376	423	48
913	90471	0518	0566	0613	0661	0709	0756	0804	0851	0899	48
914	0946	0994	1041	1089	1136	1184	1231	1279	1326	1374	47
915	1421	1469	1516	1563	1611	1658	1706	1753	1801	1848	47
916	1895	1943	1990	2038	2085	2132	2180	2227	2275	2322	47
917	2369	2417	2464	2511	2559	2606	2653	2701	2748	2795	47
918	2843	2890	2937	2985	3032	3079	3126	3174	3221	3268	47
919	3316	3363	3410	3457	3504	3552	3599	3646	3693	3741	47
920	963788	3835	3882	3929	3977	4024	4071	4118	4165	4212	47
921	4260	4307	4354	4401	4448	4495	4542	4590	4637	4684	47
922	4731	4778	4825	4872	4919	4966	5013	5061	5108	5155	47
923	5202	5249	5296	5343	5390	5437	5484	5531	5578	5625	47
924	5672	5719	5766	5813	5860	5907	5954	6001	6048	6095	47
925	6142	6189	6236	6283	6329	6376	6423	6470	6517	6564	47
926	6611	6658	6705	6752	6799	6846	6892	6939	6986	7033	47
927	7080	7127	7173	7220	7267	7314	7361	7408	7454	7501	47
N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	D

24 Degrees.						
M	sine.	co-sine.	tangent.	co-tang.	secant.	co-sec.
0	9 609313	9 960730	9 618583	10 351417	10 039270	10 390060
5	9 610729	9 960448	9 650281	10 349719	10 039552	10 389271
10	9 612140	9 960165	9 651974	10 348026	10 039835	10 387860
15	9 613545	9 959882	9 653663	10 346337	10 040118	10 386455
20	9 614944	9 959596	9 655348	10 344652	10 040404	10 385056
25	9 616338	9 959310	9 657028	10 342972	10 040690	10 383662
30	9 617727	9 959023	9 658704	10 341296	10 040977	10 382273
35	9 619110	9 958734	9 660376	10 339624	10 041266	10 380890
40	9 620488	9 958445	9 662043	10 337957	10 041555	10 379512
45	9 621861	9 958151	9 663707	10 336293	10 041846	10 378139
50	9 623229	9 957863	9 665366	10 334634	10 042137	10 376771
55	9 624591	9 957570	9 667021	10 332979	10 042430	10 375409
60	9 625948	9 957276	9 668672	10 331328	10 042724	10 374052
M	co-sine.	sine.	co-tang.	tangent.	co-sec.	secant.

25 Degrees.						
M	sine.	co-sine.	tangent.	co-tang.	secant.	co-sec.
0	9 625948	9 957276	9 668672	10 331327	10 042724	10 374052
5	9 627300	9 956981	9 670320	10 329680	10 043019	10 372700
10	9 628647	9 956684	9 671963	10 328037	10 043316	10 371350
15	9 629989	9 956387	9 673602	10 326398	10 043613	10 370011
20	9 631326	9 956089	9 675237	10 324763	10 043911	10 368674
25	9 632658	9 955789	9 676869	10 323131	10 044211	10 367342
30	9 633984	9 955488	9 678496	10 321504	10 044512	10 366016
35	9 635306	9 955186	9 680120	10 319880	10 044814	10 364694
40	9 636623	9 954883	9 681740	10 318260	10 045117	10 363377
45	9 637935	9 954579	9 683356	10 316644	10 045421	10 362065
50	9 639242	9 954274	9 684968	10 315032	10 045726	10 360758
55	9 640545	9 953968	9 686577	10 313423	10 046032	10 359456
60	9 641842	9 953660	9 688182	10 311818	10 046340	10 358158
M	co-sine.	sine.	co-tang.	tangent.	co-sec.	secant.

26 Degrees.						
M	sine.	co-sine.	tangent.	co-tang.	secant.	co-sec.
0	9 641842	9 953660	9 688182	10 311818	10 046340	10 358158
5	9 643135	9 953352	9 689783	10 310217	10 046648	10 356865
10	9 644423	9 953042	9 691381	10 308619	10 046958	10 355577
15	9 645706	9 952731	9 692975	10 307025	10 047269	10 354294
20	9 646984	9 952419	9 694566	10 305434	10 047581	10 353016
25	9 648258	9 952106	9 696153	10 303847	10 047894	10 351742
30	9 649527	9 951791	9 697736	10 302264	10 048209	10 350473
35	9 650792	9 951476	9 699316	10 300681	10 048524	10 349208
40	9 652052	9 951159	9 700893	10 299107	10 048841	10 347948
45	9 653308	9 950841	9 702466	10 297534	10 049159	10 346692
50	9 654558	9 950522	9 704036	10 295964	10 049478	10 345442
55	9 655805	9 950202	9 705603	10 294397	10 049798	10 344195
60	9 657047	9 949881	9 707166	10 292834	10 050119	10 342953
M	co-sine.	sine.	co-tang.	tangent.	co-sec.	secant.

27 Degrees.						
M	sine.	co-sine.	tangent.	co-tang.	secant.	co-secant.
0	9 657047	9 949881	9 707166	10 292834	10 050119	10 342953
5	9 658284	9 949558	9 708726	10 291274	10 050442	10 341716
10	9 659517	9 949235	9 710282	10 289718	10 050765	10 340483
15	9 660746	9 948910	9 711836	10 288164	10 051090	10 339254
20	9 661970	9 948584	9 713386	10 286614	10 051416	10 338030
25	9 663190	9 948257	9 714933	10 285067	10 051743	10 336810
30	9 664406	9 947929	9 716477	10 283523	10 052071	10 335594
35	9 665617	9 947600	9 718017	10 281983	10 052400	10 334383
40	9 666824	9 947269	9 719555	10 280445	10 052731	10 333176
45	9 668027	9 946937	9 721089	10 278911	10 053063	10 331973
50	9 669226	9 946604	9 722621	10 277379	10 053396	10 330775
55	9 670421	9 946270	9 724149	10 275851	10 053730	10 329581
60	9 671609	9 945935	9 725674	10 274326	10 054065	10 328391
M	co-sine.	sine.	co-tang.	tangent.	co-sec.	secant.

28 Degrees.						
M	sine.	co-sine.	tangent.	co-tang.	secant.	co-sec.
0	9 671609	9 945935	9 725674	10 274326	10 054065	10 328391
5	9 672795	9 945608	9 727197	10 272800	10 054402	10 327205
10	9 673977	9 945281	9 728716	10 271284	10 054739	10 326023
15	9 675155	9 944952	9 730233	10 269767	10 055078	10 324845
20	9 676328	9 944622	9 731746	10 268254	10 055418	10 323672
25	9 677498	9 944291	9 733257	10 266743	10 055759	10 322502
30	9 678663	9 943959	9 734764	10 265236	10 056101	10 321337
35	9 679824	9 943626	9 736269	10 263731	10 056445	10 320176
40	9 680982	9 943291	9 737771	10 262229	10 056790	10 319018
45	9 682135	9 942954	9 739271	10 260729	10 057136	10 317865
50	9 683284	9 942617	9 740767	10 259233	10 057483	10 316716
55	9 684429	9 942279	9 742261	10 257739	10 057831	10 315570
60	9 685571	9 941941	9 743752	10 256248	10 058181	10 314429
M	co-sine.	sine.	co-tang.	tangent.	co-sec.	secant.

29 Degrees.						
M	sine.	co-sine.	tangent.	co-tang.	secant.	co-sec.
0	9 685571	9 941941	9 743752	10 256248	10 058181	10 314429
5	9 686709	9 941603	9 745240	10 254760	10 058531	10 313291
10	9 687843	9 941264	9 746726	10 253274	10 058883	10 312157
15	9 688972	9 940923	9 748209	10 251791	10 059237	10 311028
20	9 690098	9 940581	9 749689	10 250311	10 059591	10 309902
25	9 691220	9 940239	9 751167	10 248833	10 059946	10 308780
30	9 692339	9 939897	9 752642	10 247358	10 060303	10 307661
35	9 693453	9 939553	9 754115	10 245885	10 060661	10 306547
40	9 694564	9 939208	9 755585	10 244415	10 061020	10 305436
45	9 695671	9 938863	9 757052	10 242948	10 061381	10 304329
50	9 696775	9 938517	9 758517	10 241483	10 061742	10 303225
55	9 697876	9 938169	9 759979	10 240021	10 062105	10 302126
60	9 698974	9 937821	9 761439	10 238561	10 062469	10 301030
M	co-sine.	sine.	co-tang.	tangent.	co-sec.	secant.

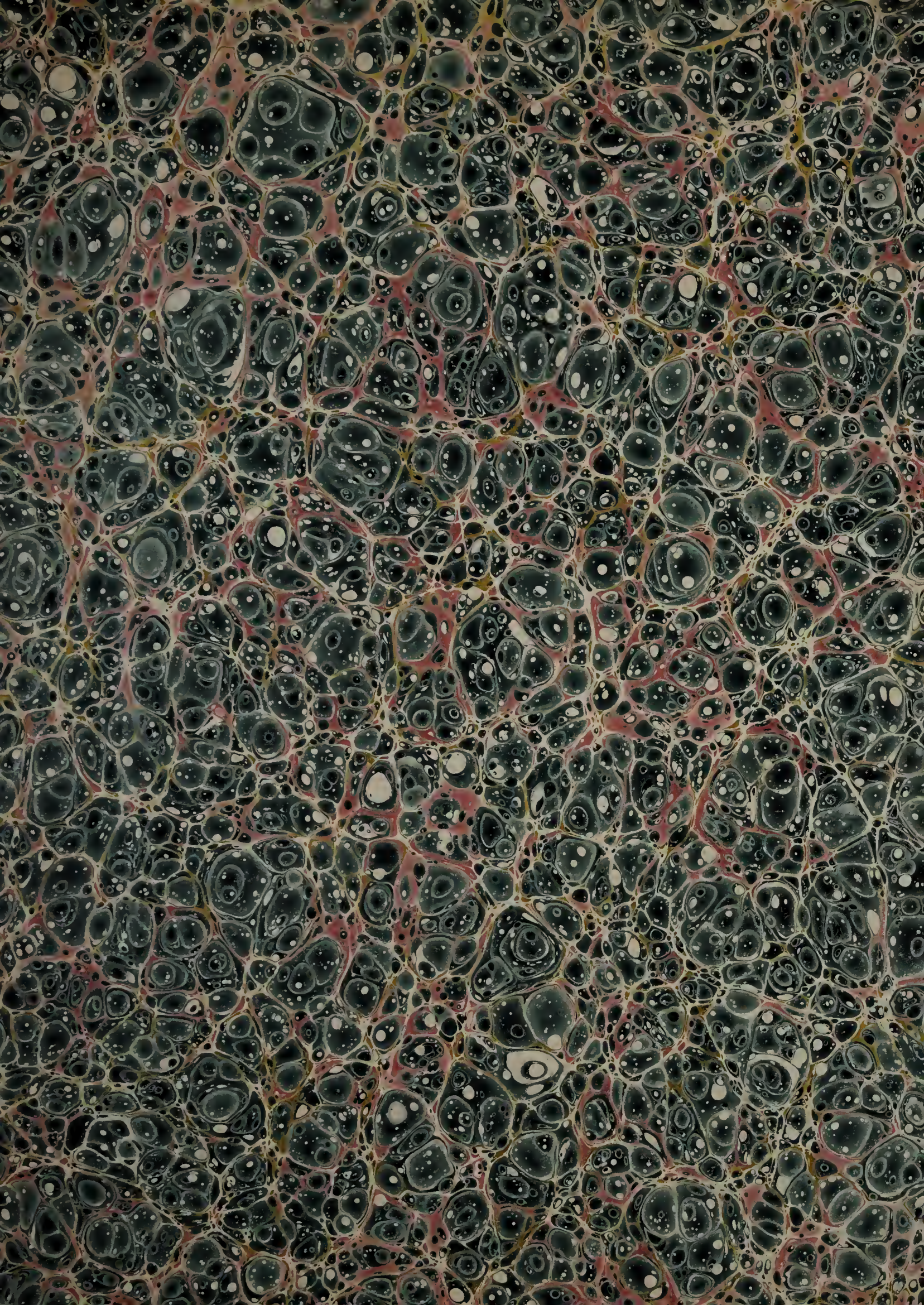
30 Degrees.						
M	sine.	co-sine.	tangent.	co-tang.	secant.	co-sec.
0	9 698974	9 937821	9 761439	10 238561	10 062469	10 301030
5	9 700105	9 937473	9 762897	10 237093	10 062835	10 299938
10	9 701231	9 937124	9 764352	10 235624	10 063201	10 298849
15	9 702353	9 936773	9 765805	10 234159	10 063569	10 297764
20	9 703471	9 936421	9 767255	10 232745	10 063938	10 296683
25	9 704585	9 936069	9 768703	10 231297	10 064308	10 295605
30	9 705695	9 935716	9 770148	10 229852	10 064680	10 294531
35	9 706800	9 935362	9 771592	10 228408	10 065052	10 293461
40	9 707906	9 935008	9 773033	10 226967	10 065426	10 292394
45	9 709009	9 934653	9 774471	10 225529	10 065801	10 291330
50	9 710108	9 934298	9 775908	10 224092	10 066178	10 290270
55	9 711203	9 933942	9 777342	10 222658	10 066555	10 289214
60	9 712294	9 933586	9 778774	10 221226	10 066934	10 288161
M	co-sine.	sine.	co-tang.	tangent.	co-sec.	secant.

31 Degrees.						
M	sine.	co-sine.	tangent.	co-tang.	secant.	co-sec.
0	9 712294	9 933586	9 778774	10 221226	10 066934	10 288161
5	9 713389	9 933229	9 780203	10 219797	10 067315	10 287111
10	9 714478	9 932871	9 781631	10 218369	10 067696	10 286065
15	9 715562	9 932512	9 783056	10 216944	10 068079	10 285022
20	9 716641	9 932153	9 784479	10 215521	10 068463	10 283983
25	9 717715	9 931794	9 785900	10 214100	10 068848	10 282947
30	9 718785	9 931434	9 787319	10 212681	10 069234	10 281915
35	9 719850	9 931074	9 788736	10 211264	10 069622	10 280886
40	9 720911	9 930713	9 790151	10 209849	10 070011	10 279860
45	9 721968	9 930352	9 791563	10 208437	10 070401	10 278838
50	9 723021	9 929991	9 792974	10 207026	10 070793	10 277819
55	9 724071	9 929629	9 794383	10 205617	10 071185	10 276803
60	9 725118	9 929267	9 795789	10 204211	10 071580	10 275790
M	co-sine.	sine.	co-tang.	tangent.	co-sec.	secant.

58 Degrees.							
32 Degrees.							
M	sine.	co-sine.	tangent.	co-tang.	secant.	co-sec.	M
0	9 725118	9 928267	9 795789	10 204211	10 071580	10 275790	50
5	9 726161	9 928025	9 797194	10 202806	10 071975	10 274781	55
10	9 726295	9 927629	9 798596	10 201404	10 072371	10 273775	50
15	9 727238	9 927231	9 799997	10 200003	10 072769	10 272772	45
20	9 728227	9 926831	9 801396	10 198604	10 073169	10 271773	40
25	9 729223	9 926431	9 802792	10 197208	10 073569	10 270777	35
30	9 730217	9 926039	9 804187	10 195813	10 073971	10 269783	30
35	9 731206	9 925626	9 805580	10 194420	10 074374	10 268794	25
40	9 732193	9 925222	9 806971	10 193029	10 074778	10 267807	20
45	9 733177	9 924816	9 808361	10 191639	10 075184	10 266823	15
50	9 734157	9 924409	9 809748	10 190252	10 075591	10 265842	10
55	9 735135	9 924001	9 811134	10 188866	10 075999	10 264865	5
60	9 736109	9 923591	9 812517	10 187483	10 076409	10 263891	0
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